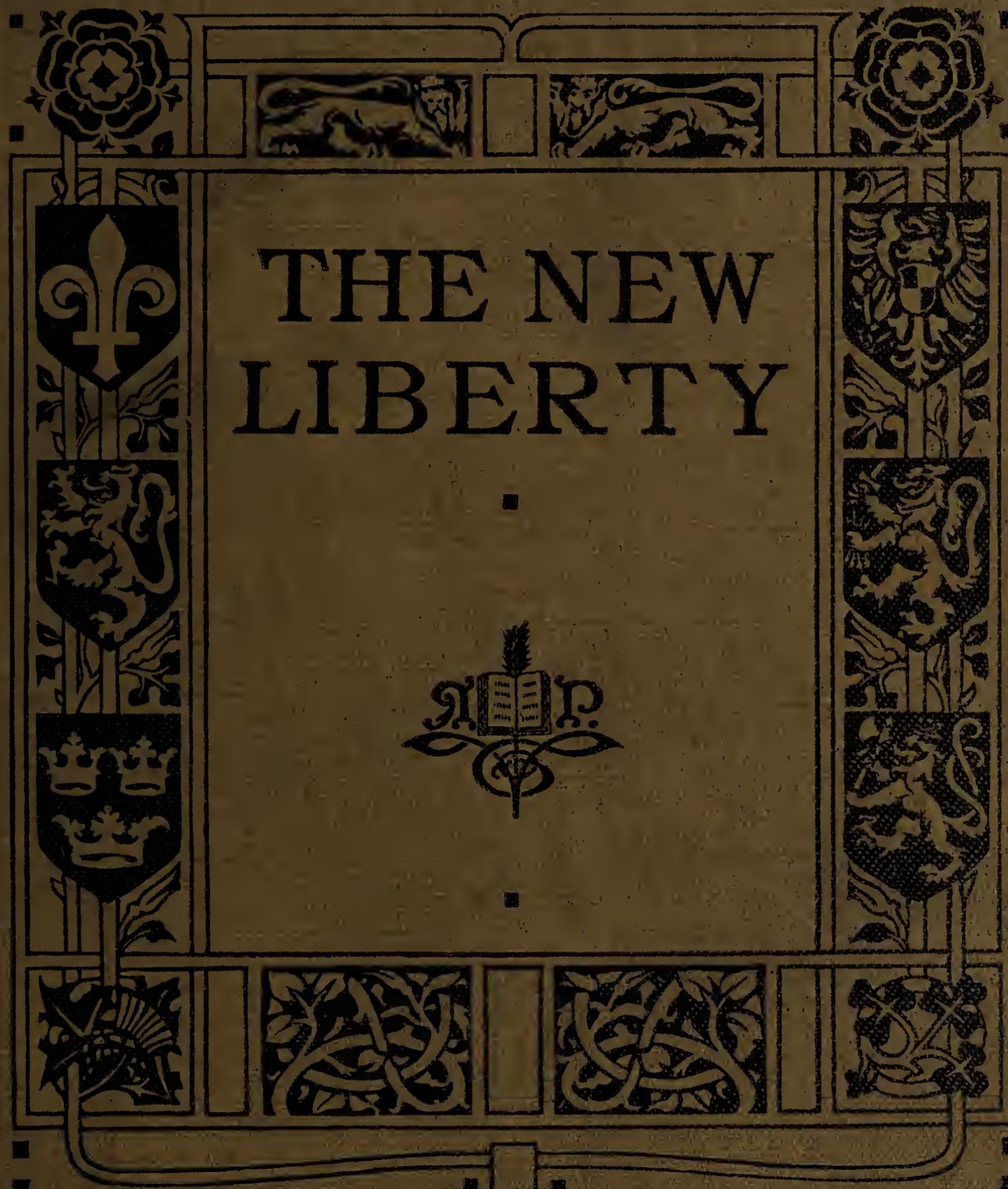


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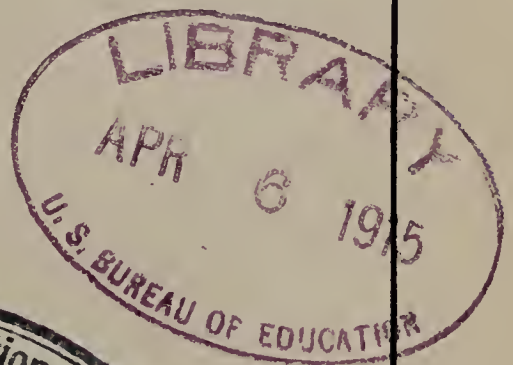
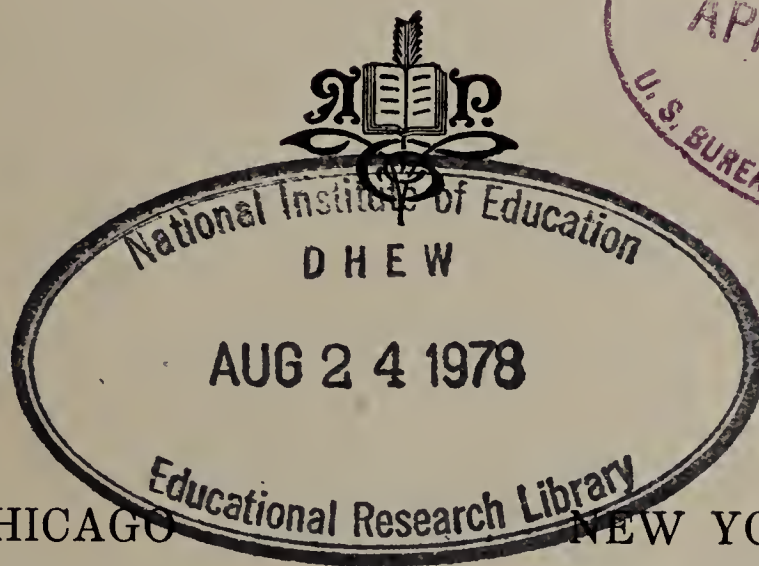
THE BOYHOOD OF RALEIGH

From the painting by Sir J. E. Millais, P.R.A., in the Tate Gallery, London

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HISTORY STORIES OF OTHER LANDS

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EDITED BY
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PREFACE

The aim of this series is to provide some facts of British history not usually given in elementary schoolbooks, together with some broad outlines of the European history of which British history and our own to an extent form a part. When this larger background is sketched in, the great events of American history are seen in their true relation and assume a new significance. The historic sense is enriched when such movements as the Crusades or the Renaissance are exhibited in their wider aspects — as reaching our shores, even though remotely, like the tides from afar.

The first two books of the series consist of simple stories of all time drawn from ancient history. The later volumes deal each with a definite period. British history receives a large share of space, because of its close relationship to our own, but the narrative pauses from time to time to tell of what was happening elsewhere, especially where the course of events across the Channel influenced or was influenced by what was happening in Britain.

In addition to a great number of drawings of historical objects, etc., and pictures of persons and places of note, the colored illustrations provide

PREFACE

reproductions of famous historical paintings in the galleries of Great Britain and the Continent, heretofore not available for school use in this country.

Maps and pictorial time charts, designed to help the pupils to fix the time- and place-relations, by appealing to the visual memory, have been placed for convenience of reference in the appendix by themselves.

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COLORED PLATES

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1. THE BOYHOOD OF RALEIGH

Painted by Sir J. E. Millais, P.R.A. *Frontispiece*

Reproduced from the picture in the Tate Gallery, London
Walter and his older brother, seated on the ground behind a sea wall, are listening entranced to a sailor's yarn, their toy ship lying forgotten among the seaweed. The storyteller, a bronzed and tattooed mariner, has laid aside the basket he is trimming with feathers, and is eagerly pointing westward ho! to the land of his adventure. An anchor and a cluster of sea pinks complete the picture.

2. FROM AN ILLUMINATED MANUSCRIPT: POEMS OF CHARLES, DUKE OF ORLEANS - - - - Flemish Work 20

Reproduced from the original in the British Museum

The manuscript here represented dates from about 1500, and is an example of Flemish work in its best period, when artists were seeking to follow nature more faithfully in landscape and in floral ornament. The reproduction shows a few lines from a French poem by the Duke of Orleans, who commanded at Agincourt and was taken captive by the English. Above is a view of the Tower of London with London Bridge and the city. The duke, a prisoner in the White Tower, is writing at a table. In the border are scarlet carnations and strawberries, and at the foot the arms of Henry VII.

3. "EGO ET REX MEUS" Painted by Sir John Gilbert, R.A. 48
Reproduced by permission of the Corporation of London

Henry VIII and Wolsey are here represented under the title *Ego et Rex Meus* — "I and my king", as if to suggest that this phrase of the cardinal's showed his pride of place. As a matter of fact Latin grammar requires that the word "I" should come first, and Wolsey was too good a scholar to blunder. In the picture Henry leans his arm familiarly on Wolsey's shoulder, while the cardinal, wearing the robes of his office, ponders some question of state, connected perhaps with the paper he holds in his hand.

4. FRANCIS I AND CHARLES V VISITING THE TOMBS OF ST. DENIS - - - - Painted by Baron Gros 70
Reproduced from the picture in the Louvre, Paris

In 1540, during an interval of peace, Charles V was the guest of Francis I, who is here represented showing him

FACING PAGE

the royal tomb in the church of St. Denis, Paris. Facing the kingly pair is the abbot with mitre and crozier, and behind, on the rising steps, are various nobles and cardinals. On the Emperor's right is the heir of France, afterwards Henry II, whose queen, the famous Catharine de Medici (wife of one French king and mother of three), may be seen in the gallery above at the extreme left. At the other end Rabelais the humorist is leaning over the gallery, and in front of him is the boy Montaigne, whose essays were to delight a later generation.

5. THE ENTRY OF HENRY IV INTO PARIS

Painted by Baron Gérard 97

Reproduced from the picture in the Louvre, Paris

Amid the plaudits of the people Henry IV rides into his capital, bareheaded, his white-plumed helmet borne by his great minister, Sully, who follows on a white horse. Meeting the king from the other side, the governor of Paris, mounted and hat in hand, introduces the magistrates in their robes of office, who stand on Henry's left presenting the keys of the city. On the balcony above is Henry's lady-love, who might have become his queen but for her untimely death in 1599. Behind may be seen the city gate with raised portcullis, and on the right the new buildings of the Louvre, while the foreground is strewn with shattered barricades, suggesting opposition overcome.

6. QUEEN ELIZABETH GOING ON BOARD THE GOLDEN HIND

Painted by Frank Brangwyn, A.R.A. 121

Reproduced by permission of the artist and the Committee of Lloyd's Register of Shipping

The royal barge with its splendid banner floating from the mast is drawing to the side of the *Golden Hind*, which, lately returned from the voyage round the world, is lying off Deptford in the golden sunshine, surrounded by a crowd of smaller craft. In the stern of the barge is Queen Elizabeth, who by this signal act of favor to "the master thief" of the Spanish Main is defying King Philip. Going on board the *Golden Hind* she knights its captain, Francis Drake, and directs that the famous ship be preserved as a memorial of his voyage.

7. THE ARMADA IN THE CHANNEL: AN INCIDENT IN THE RUNNING FIGHT

Painted by C. M. Padday 155

While the main body of the Armada moves on, an English captain has engaged one of the stragglers. The great Spanish galleon rocks in the waves, discharging its guns harmlessly into the air, while the smaller but nimbler Englishman has got the wind of her and pours a deadly fire into her

FACING PAGE

prow. Contrast the tall gilded poop of the galleon with the lower build of the English ship, and note how the latter (in the words of an old *Sea Grammar*) has "her tops and yards well manned, with stones and brass balls, to enter the galleon in the shrouds", when the time comes for boarding.

8. SPENSER READING THE FAIRY QUEEN TO SIR WALTER RALEIGH
Painted by John Claxton 164

Reproduced by permission of Mr. Burdett-Coutts

Born in the same year, Raleigh and Spenser were old acquaintances, and were now settled on neighboring estates in County Cork. Nine years before, they had met in arms against the Spanish invaders of Ireland, as may be read in Kingsley's *Westward Ho!* Chapter IX. The meeting represented in the picture occurred in 1589, when Raleigh visited Spenser at his castle of Kilcolman and listened with delight to the reading of *The Fairy Queen*. Thus encouraged, Spenser went with Sir Walter to London, and published there the poem which was to prove a landmark to the history of English poetry. Raleigh's visit was commemorated in Spenser's pastoral poem, *Colin Clout's Come Home Again*, where Sir Walter figures as the Shepherd of the Ocean — a quaint title, of which the globe in the picture is perhaps meant as a symbol. The lady seen standing on Spenser's right is Elizabeth Boyle, who afterwards became his wife, and whom he celebrated in some of his most beautiful love poems.

9. THE HAPPIER DAYS OF CHARLES I
Painted by F. Goodall, R.A. 207

Reproduced by permission of the Corporation of Bury

The royal barge, rowed by three pairs of oars, is gliding over the peaceful Thames towards the water gate of Hampton Court, where attendants are waiting on the platform. The king is standing beside his queen, Henrietta, daughter of Henry of Navarre, watching the children feeding swans with cake from a dish held by a negro servant. Among the royal family we recognize the future Charles II standing under the canopy, and beside him Princess Mary, afterwards mother of William of Orange; while in the little boy with the white plumed hat we see the hapless James II, who was to give up the crown to that same William in 1688. So, despite its air of peace and happiness, this barge is freighted with the history of a century — the Civil War, the Restoration, the Revolution.

10. GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS'S PRAYER BEFORE THE BATTLE OF
LUTZEN - - - Painted by Louis Braun 216

Gustavus, at the head of his blue and yellow guards, offers

prayer before joining battle with Wallenstein, while at his feet lie the bodies of soldiers slain the night before in a skirmish with the enemy. The smoke of a burning house still darkens the air, but the fog of the November morning has lifted just enough to allow the battle to begin. Later in the day the mist settled down once more, and the battle was fought out in a dreadful gloom. The manner of Gustavus's death was long uncertain, the dire news being spread among the Swedish host by the sight of his riderless horse. But even in death Gustavus was invincible, and his last field was a victory for Sweden.

11. OLIVER CROMWELL AT THE STORMING OF BASING HOUSE

Painted by Ernest Crofts, R.A. 230

Reproduced by permission of the Corporation of Leeds

During the Civil War, Basing House, Hampshire, was held for nearly two years against the Parliament. How it finally fell in October, 1645, is told by Cromwell in a letter to the Speaker of the Commons: "I thank God I can give a good account of Basing House. We stormed this morning; the signal for falling-on was the firing of four of our cannon; which being done our men fell-on with great resolution and cheerfulness." In the picture Cromwell is shown at the head of his staff, urging on his men, who are advancing at the double towards the breach in the outbuildings which has opened a way to the castellated mansion within. The presence of a puritan divine with the general's staff, mounted and holding an open Bible, suggests something of the spirit of this warfare.

12. CHARLES I ON HIS WAY TO EXECUTION

Painted by Ernest Crofts, R.A. 242

Accompanied by Bishop Juxon, Charles, carefully dressed for the occasion, walked through the leafless avenues of St. Jame's Park towards Whitehall, where the scaffold had been erected. Ten companies of infantry lined the road, and a detachment went before with banners flying and drums beating. It was a bitterly cold morning, the Thames being frozen over, and the king walked at a brisk rate, saying to the guard: "Come, my good fellows, step on apace." So without fear and with unruffled dignity he went to his death.

THE NEW LIBERTY

MODERN TIMES

The Rise of Nations

The accession of Henry VII and the House of Tudor in 1485 is usually regarded in English history as marking the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern times. It must be remembered, however, that no exact dates can be given for the great periods of history. Like the seasons of the year they shade into one another, so that it is impossible to fix definitely where one ends and another begins. All that can be said with certainty is that towards the close of the fifteenth century a series of events occurred which completely altered the course of the world's history, and placed a great gulf between the new and the old order of things. The rise about the same time of a new royal House in England is therefore commonly taken as the most convenient starting-point for marking the opening of the new era.

The dawn of the new age was like the coming of spring after the passing of winter. The Middle

Ages had been marked by ignorance, superstition, and lawlessness. Fighting and religion occupied the minds of the leaders of the people to the exclusion of almost everything else, and all the great figures of these times look out upon us from the visor of the knight or the cowl of the monk.

But with the beginning of the new age we are on the threshold of a very different state of things. Men's thoughts are directed into a hundred new channels, and the arts of peace have an ever-increasing band of followers.

One of the most striking features in the new era is the decay of the feudal system and the rise in its place of strong monarchies. The feudal system was largely responsible for the disorder and lawlessness of the Middle Ages. The feudal lords regarded themselves as petty sovereigns within the bounds of their own estates, and only a strong king was able to keep them under control. Occasionally a feudal lord, by means of a fortunate marriage, surpassed the king himself in the extent of his possessions and in the number of his followers. From this it was but a step to challenge the power of the throne itself. In this way one saw the great Earl of Warwick during the Wars of the Roses passing from side to side, making and unmaking kings.

The Wars of the Roses illustrate all the evils of the feudal system under a weak king. They were

due to the ambition and selfishness of the nobles, who fought each for his own hand, and had no regard for the national welfare. In the long run these wars led to the undoing of the nobles and to the overthrow of the feudal system. When the wars ceased, it was found that most of the great lords had fallen in battle or under the headsman's axe, while the few who survived were burdened with debt, and in no condition to oppose the authority of the king.

The common people, who had taken little direct part in these ruthless struggles, had yet suffered severely from their effects. They saw that the only hope of settled government lay in having a central authority strong enough to curb the greedy and lawless nobles. They therefore stood by the king in his attempts to bring the barons under the common law of the land, even though by doing so they were giving up some of their own liberties and rights.

In this way England became, what it had never really been before, a united nation ruled by a king who had no rivals near his throne, and governed by laws that were general throughout the length and breadth of the land.

While England was thus gathering itself together other nations in Europe were doing the same, and as England was now about to take its place as one of the great powers of Europe, it is necessary to outline briefly the course of events there.



Ploughman of the Middle Ages

France had suffered even more than England under the feudal system, and one great vassal of the French crown, the Duke of Burgundy, had threatened for a time the very existence of the nation. But as England became a strong nation through the Wars of the Roses, so France became one through the Hundred Years' War. The power of the French feudal lords was broken on the

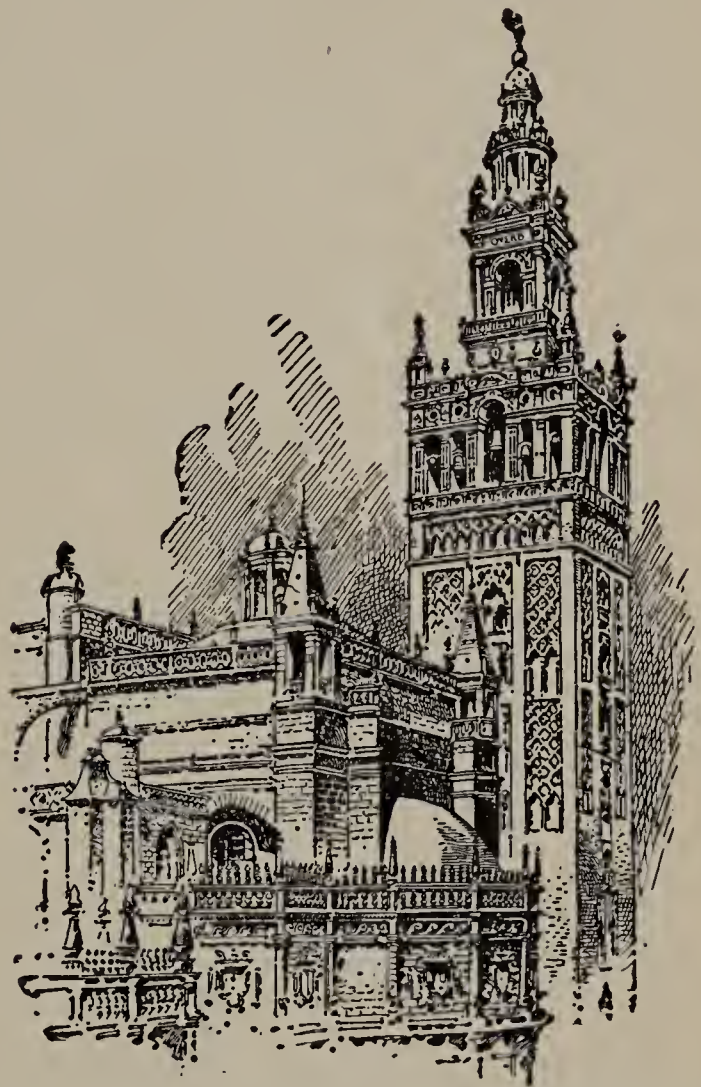
fields of Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt, where so many of the best and bravest fell. Under Louis XI that power was swept entirely away, and the foundations of a powerful nation were securely laid.

Until the year 1479 the Kingdom of Spain did not exist. The whole peninsula was divided into four kingdoms, Portugal, Castile, Aragon, and Granada which was in the possession of the Moors. By the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile, the two northern kingdoms were united in 1479. By this happy union the once rival kingdoms were able to employ their combined

strength against the Moorish kingdom in the south. The Moors made a desperate defense and contested every inch of territory. City after city, however, fell into the hands of the Christian knights, who fought with all the fervor of the old Crusaders. At last Granada was forced to surrender, and thus eight centuries of Moorish rule came to an end. This victory not only made Spain a nation, but advanced it to a foremost place in European affairs.

In Germany and Italy the people did not unite to form one strong nation as happened in England, France, and Spain. Germany and Italy were each made up of a number of separate States which were always bitter rivals and often at open war with one another.

Turning now



The Tower of the Giralda, Seville, Spain
Part of a Moorish mosque erected in the
twelfth century

to the East, we find the Ottoman Turks in possession of Constantinople since the year 1453, when they captured the city from the Greeks after a heroic defense. From here for over two hundred years they threatened to overpower the Christian nations bordering on their territories. For a time, indeed, it seemed as if the boast of one of their sultans would come true. He had vowed that his horse would eat oats from off the high altar of St. Peter's at Rome. The warriors of Hungary and the sailors of Spain and Venice were the first to offer a successful opposition to their advance, and since that time the Turks have steadily lost ground.

Russia was still slumbering its sleep of ages; but wedged in between that country and Germany was the powerful kingdom of Poland, whose kings also took a prominent part in beating back the Turkish hordes.

The Renaissance

The capture of Constantinople by the Turks was received throughout civilized Europe with as great dismay as was the downfall of Rome in the fifth century. Constantinople was at this time the greatest center of learning in Europe. Within its libraries were priceless manuscripts of all the great works of the ancient world. The Greek language, with its splendid literature, was all but unknown in western Europe, but here it was honored and

studied by all scholars and students. No wonder, then, that the fall of this great city was regarded at the time as the knell of learning. Yet, strange to say, this disaster was to prove but the herald of its second birth.

Many of the Greek scholars, foreseeing the fall of their beloved city, fled to Italy, carrying with them manuscripts of the Greek classics. Fortunately for them they arrived at a time when the people of Italy were beginning to take an interest in the great works of the past. For nearly a thousand years the world had remained blind to the glories of ancient Greece and Rome. Their magnificent ruins were valued merely as a quarry for building material, and their beautifully wrought marbles as a cheap source of lime for mortar.

But some time before the arrival of the penniless scholars from the East, all this had been changed. The nation had awakened to the grandeur of its ancient monuments and to the splendor of its ancient literature. The old buildings were now carefully preserved and guarded, and men sought eagerly amidst their ruins for fragments of the masterpieces of the Old World. The libraries of the monasteries were searched for old manuscripts, and costly libraries were founded in which the new treasures were stored for the use of students.

Coming in the midst of this revival of interest in the past, the exiles from Constantinople were

welcomed gladly, and the study of Greek became the fashion of the day. So general indeed was the study of that language that one of the scholars exclaimed: "Greece has not fallen. She has only migrated to Italy."

This new interest in learning and art has received the name of the Renaissance or "new birth". But the Renaissance was much more than a revival of learning and the recovery of a lost culture. It was a reawakening of the human intellect from its sleep of ages, a new stirring of men's minds that was to produce great results and changes in many directions.

The movement thus begun in Italy soon spread across the Alps into Germany, France, and England. There the enthusiasm was equally great, but it took a different direction. The study of Latin and Greek was followed not so much for the sake of the great works in those languages as for their bearing on the Scriptures and the sacred writings generally. In a few years this study was to bear fruit in the great religious revolution known as the Reformation.

In Italy, however, the Renaissance continued, as it began, a literary and art revival. The history of the Italian Renaissance is largely bound up with the history of Florence, for most of the greatest thinkers, writers, and artists of the age were Florentines by birth or by adoption. In the long roll



FROM AN ILLUMINATED MANUSCRIPT: POEMS OF CHARLES,
DUKE OF ORLEANS

Flemish work of date about 1500. Reproduced from the original in the British Museum

of fame are to be found the names of the poets Dante and Petrarch, of Boccaccio the writer of immortal tales, of the statesman Machiavelli, and of the artists Michael Angelo and Leonardo da Vinci, all of whom, though differing widely in point of date, are connected with the Renaissance movement.

Florence was a city state, a republic in form, but really governed by a noble family called the Medici, who were kings in all but name. The most famous member of this noble house was Lorenzo de Medici, usually known as Lorenzo the Magnificent. He governed Florence during the latter years of the fifteenth century. He was himself one of the most learned men of the age, and he delighted to encourage learning in others. In his splendid palace at Florence he gathered round him all the great writers and artists of the day. He spent immense sums in collecting ancient manuscripts, and kept forty-five penmen at work copying them



Lorenzo de Medici

for the benefit of others. In the gardens of his palace he collected every fragment of ancient sculpture that he could find, and appointed a noted sculptor to give lessons on the art to all who had the desire and the ability to profit by them.

To this school came a youth named Michael Angelo. After a few days' instruction he reproduced a faun's head in marble. His master was so pleased with it that he showed it to Lorenzo, who at once recognized the genius of the artist. One flaw, however, Lorenzo pointed out. The head was that of an old man, yet between the smiling lips there appeared a perfect row of teeth. With one stroke of mallet and chisel the young sculptor chipped a gap in the shining row, and the effect of age was at once made perfect. From that time Lorenzo took Michael into his palace and treated him as one of his own children.

Soon after this, the young artist begged his patron to let him try his powers on a huge block of marble, over nine feet high, that had been left a shapeless mass by a sculptor a hundred years before. He built a tower of wood round the block and allowed no one to see him at work. For three years he toiled steadily at it, and then summoned his friends to see a gigantic statue of David as a youth with a sling. Everyone recognized the greatness of the work, and the sculptor was hailed as the equal of the ancients.

One of his friends has left an account of his manner of working. “ I have seen him in a quarter of an hour strike more chips from the hardest marble than three of the strongest sculptors could do in twice the time. He would approach the marble with such fury, I often feared the whole work would be dashed to pieces. At one blow he would break off pieces three or four inches long, yet with such exactness that a mere straw more would have spoiled the whole work.”

On the fall of the Medici family in Florence, Pope Julius II asked him to come to Rome and build a stately tomb for him as part of the great church of St. Peter's. This he proceeded to do on such a grand scale that Julius resolved to have St. Peter's itself rebuilt on an enlarged and nobler plan, in order that it might be in keeping with his tomb. Michael Angelo devoted the later years of his life to the rebuilding of St. Peter's, a work in which another great artist, Raphael, had also had a hand, and converted it into the most imposing and beautiful of Christian temples.

Pope Julius also commanded the sculptor to paint the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, the private chapel of the popes, in the Vatican. This work, it is said, was given to Michael Angelo at the request of a rival artist, who hoped that the great sculptor would prove a failure as a painter. But Michael Angelo did not fail. He proved himself as much a master



Michael Angelo

with the brush as with the chisel, and the wonderful series of figures and incidents in Old Testament history painted on the ceilings and walls of this chapel are still regarded as the perfection of painting.

Michael Angelo was indeed a kind of universal genius, and is regarded as the greatest

artist of all time. He was supreme as a sculptor, painter, and architect. He also composed excellent poetry; and when his native city was besieged by the French, he it was who raised the fortifications for its defense.

He died at Rome in 1564, and was buried in his beloved Florence.

The Invention of Printing

The Renaissance would have affected a mere handful of the people had it not been for the invention about the same time of the art of printing. The only way, up to this time, of reproducing copies of books had been the slow and laborious method of writing them out. In the quiet of the monasteries,

monks and their pupils spent long years in making copies of books, and there were also men called scribes or copyists who made copying a regular trade.

Some of the copies thus written were beautiful works of art; the writing was most carefully done, capital letters were often painted in colors, and the margins were decorated with colored pictures and elegant designs.

Such books were scarce, and very expensive; only well-to-do people could afford to buy them. The Duke of Burgundy once gave \$270 for a copy of a single book. As most people never even saw a book, there was no need for them to learn to read, and very few people wished to do so.

About the year 1450, people began to speak of a new and wonderful way of making books which had sprung up in Germany. It was so strange to them, and they so little understood it, that they actually thought those who practiced it were the servants of the Evil One, or magicians at least. But times have changed since then, and now some twenty towns contend for the honor of being the birthplace of the new art, and there are also many claimants for the credit of being its inventor. It is generally agreed to-day that to John Gutenberg and to the town of Mayence in Germany is due the honor of the great invention.

For many years, small books and rough pictures

had been printed from wooden blocks, engraved in a simple and clumsy fashion. It was not till about the middle of the fifteenth century that Gutenberg first began to print from movable types.

Then it was that single letters were first cut out in wood and metal; such letters were called *types*. Thus any number of words could be made by putting together the single types; and when a whole page had been put together, or “set”, as printers say, the type was evenly covered with ink, a sheet of paper was pressed upon it, and was taken off again as a printed page.

It took a long time to set a whole book in type; but when once the type was set, any number of copies could be printed off in a much shorter time than it would take to write them. When the printing was finished, the types could be separated or “distributed”, and used for another book.

Nowadays when a book is set up in type, a printer can take off many pages at once and can print copies very rapidly by means of a press worked by steam or other power. But at first every page was printed separately; the type was inked, the paper was put on, the press was brought down upon it and raised again, all by hand. Yet slow as it was, printing effected an immense saving of time and labor, and the day of the copyists was at an end.

The art thus begun in Germany soon spread to Italy, and in a few years was generally practiced

in all the great European capitals. In 1477 William Caxton set up the first printing press in England at a spot just opposite the west door of Westminster Abbey. The place was then called the Almonry, and as houses were known by signs and not by numbers, Caxton



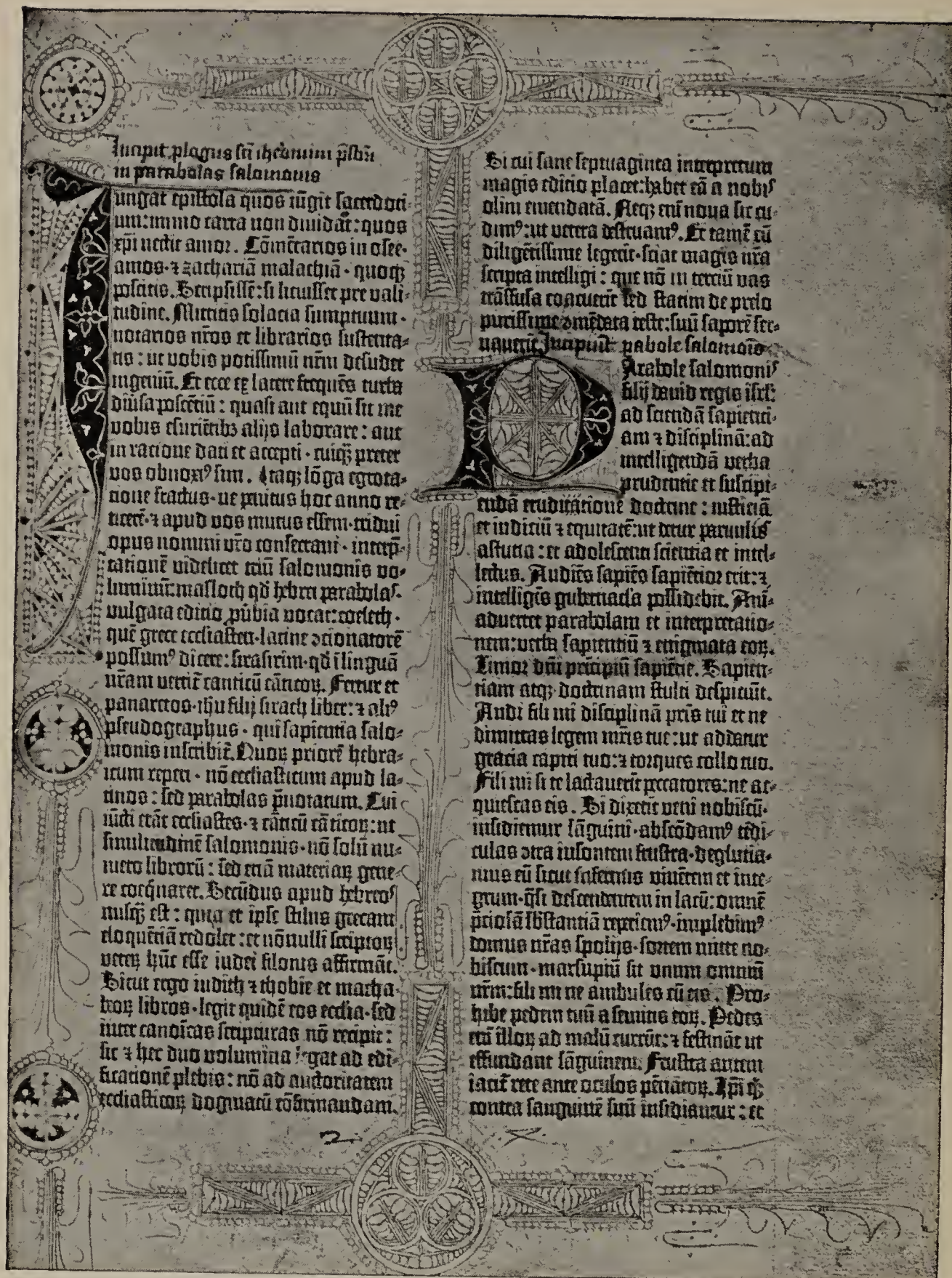
John Gutenberg

took as his sign a pole painted red. His full address was therefore: “At Westminster, in the Almonry, at the Red Pole”.

The type that Caxton used was not at all like that used in printing this book. The letters were much larger, and in shape resembled those which are now called Old English, and which have gone out of ordinary use.

Caxton, besides being a printer, was, as we know, a translator; twenty of the books that he printed were translations — some of them by himself. He was thus of double importance in English history.

Other printers followed Caxton's example, and books, which had before been scarce and dear, soon became numerous and much cheaper. Many people now began to learn to read, who would not otherwise have thought of doing so; and the new invention



A PAGE OF THE MAZARIN BIBLE

So called because a copy is preserved in the library of Cardinal Mazarin. The printing is ascribed to Gutenberg, the large initials and decorations being put in by hand. The text is in Latin, and the page here shown is from St. Jerome's introduction

was the means of bringing knowledge and happiness to thousands upon thousands.

The Age of Discovery

The study of the great works of the ancient world aroused all over Europe a new spirit that sought an outlet in many directions, but chiefly in voyages of exploration and discovery. Many of the works of the ancient writers had much to say about certain unknown lands and islands said to exist across the seas, and these were eagerly studied by the adventurous spirits of the new age who longed to put their theories to the test.

The love of adventure and the desire for fame were not, however, the only motives that appealed to these men. In their imagination riches and treasures untold were awaiting the fortunate voyagers who should first reach the fabled lands across the seas. There was indeed good ground for this belief of theirs. The gold and silver mines of Europe were nearly exhausted, and in new lands it was fondly trusted would be found an abundant supply.

But quite apart from the discovering of new lands, the enterprising sailors of the age were tempted over the seas in the hope of finding a new route to India. From that country came all the most costly merchandise of the times. Spices and ivory, diamonds, pearls, and other rare gems, rich silks, and

fine cottons — all came from the lands of the rising sun. They were brought by caravans to the ports in the Levant and the Black Sea, and from there were dispersed all over Europe by the merchant ships of Venice and Genoa, the great seaports of the age.

The capture of Constantinople by the Turks put a stop to all this trade. The Mediterranean, which had hitherto been the world's waterway, became deserted, and its seaports continued to languish and decay till they were revived in our day by the opening of the Suez Canal.

With the Mediterranean thus closed against them, men looked to the great ocean that washes the shores of western Europe as the only hope of getting a pathway to the East. For all the bolder spirits this idea had a strong attraction, but we must remember that it had also a great terror for many. The superstitious minds of the Middle Ages had peopled the unknown regions of the globe with nameless horrors. The lands were shrouded in eternal mists and darkness, and haunted by demons, dragons, and all manner of monsters. The seas were filled with whirlpools that sucked far-distant ships into their depths, while out in the Atlantic was the "Sea of Darkness", and at the Equator was a zone of boiling water and molten liquid that no ship could cross.

These and other terrors were some of the obstacles to early maritime enterprise; but the old supersti-

tions were fast losing their power, and men were prepared to risk much for the great reward that seemed set before them. Nor must we forget that the mariner's compass, which came into use in the



A Missionary of the Middle Ages looking over the Edge of the World

thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, enabled voyagers to sail far out to sea with a confidence and a hope of return that earlier sailors could not possess.

The great voyages of the period had all the same object, the discovery of a sea route to the East; but while one set of explorers sought for it by sailing

down the coast of Africa to its extremity, another believed it could best be found by sailing westward across the Atlantic. Those who held the latter view were convinced that the world was a sphere, and that ships sailing straight westward would arrive on the eastern shores of India. In support of this view they pointed to the unknown plants and the pieces of wood marked with strange letters and figures that from time to time were washed up on the shores of western Europe.

Among those who strongly held this view was a Genoese shipmaster named Christopher Columbus. He had also heard, in all probability, of the voyages of the Northmen to a far-off land in the West several centuries before this, and he was determined to put his theory to the proof. To this end he looked about for a patron who would provide him with ships and men for the purpose. He went first to the King of Portugal, because the Portuguese were at this time the most enterprising sailors in the world.

But the King of Portugal was busy fitting out expeditions to sail round Africa to India, and refused to give Columbus any support. Nothing daunted, he sent letters to Henry VII of England asking for his aid, but the letters never reached the King. He then applied to a powerful duke in Spain, who sent him to the good Queen Isabella of

Castile. She received him with favor, but her counsellors advised her not to give money to him.

Disappointed, but not discouraged, Columbus tried again and again to get what he wanted; and at length, after seven weary years, the queen agreed to fit



One of the Ships of Columbus

out an expedition at her own expense. Columbus was made an admiral, and was promised a reward if he were successful in finding any new lands.

On August 3, 1492, the brave seaman set sail with three ships and a company of 120 men. They first touched at the Canary Islands, and then sailed away westward over the boundless blue ocean. Day after day passed, week after week, and nothing was seen but sea and sky. The men began to feel uneasy, and to look with distrust on the eager commander who had made them such fine promises of wealth in a new land.

Two months passed, and still no land had ap-

peared. Columbus cheered his men with all the most persuasive words he could use, but at length their patience gave way, and they threatened to throw him overboard and steer for home. "Are there no graves in Spain," they asked, "that you should bring us here to perish?"

The heart of the brave mariner was heavy as he said: "Wait but three days. If in three days land does not appear, then will I myself put my ship about and return."

Now Columbus and his men looked out still more eagerly for signs of land. To their great joy land birds came flying about the ships, and land plants were seen floating upon the sea.

At length a branch of a tree bearing red berries was caught up on a hook by one of the seamen. Fear gave way to hope, despair to eager expectancy, and the crews of all three ships raised a mighty cheer when, on October 12, a dim line of yellow sand was seen far off on the horizon.

It was land at last. They had reached an island, one of the group that is now called the Bahamas. It was not India, as Columbus had expected; a whole great continent and another ocean lay between the Atlantic and India.

But the common belief that there was land to the west was proved correct, and Columbus was the first man from the Old World who is actually known

to have set foot on the soil of the New World, now called America.

When Columbus returned to Spain in the next year, he was received with the highest honors. Now that he was successful, men of all ranks were eager to examine the strange things he had brought back, to hear his wonderful stories, and to share in the wealth of which he told them.

He made three more voyages, in which he discovered more islands, and the mainland of South America. But his later years were disturbed by illness, and failures and vexations of all kinds.

The Spaniards were jealous of the glory and honor which a foreigner had won, forgetting how hard he had worked to earn them. Enemies spoke evil of him at Court, his companions opposed and thwarted him at sea.

Once he was sent home to Spain a prisoner in irons, by a governor whom the king had sent out to the newly discovered country. Broken in health, wounded in spirit and in deep poverty, the great discoverer died in Spain in 1506.

Results of the Discovery

The example of Columbus stirred other seamen to undertake daring voyages of discovery. There was living at Bristol a Venetian merchant named John Cabot, who had spent a long life in trading with

distant countries. He had sailed not only to the countries in the south of Europe and along the shores of the Mediterranean, but had ventured as far as Iceland, the cold island in the far northwest.

There he heard stories of a land far across the western ocean, which the great-grandfathers of the men of Iceland were said to have visited many years before. Longing to see this land, and hearing of the successful voyage of Columbus, Cabot applied to King Henry VII of England for help, just as Columbus had applied to the King of Portugal.

Now Henry was fond of money, and he thought that, if there really was a rich land over the sea, he might get part of its wealth for himself. So he fitted out some ships, and allowed Cabot and his sons to set out on their voyage of discovery; but made them promise to come back to Bristol, and to give him a part of whatever they brought with them.

Cabot sailed away to the northwest early in the year 1497, and, after a long and dangerous voyage, reached the shores of the land now called Labrador. Thus Cabot was the first man from the Old World whom we know for certain to have landed on the mainland of America.

He continued his voyage, and after discovering a land which he called Newfoundland, he returned

to England. His son Sebastian made more voyages when his father was dead, and became a trusted servant of the Crown.

It seems a little strange that the newly discovered western continent was not named after Columbus or Cabot. It got its name America from a merchant of Florence named Amerigo Vespucci, who hastened to follow the example of Columbus. In 1499, he reached the northern shores of the southern half of the continent.

When he returned to Europe, he entered the service of the King of Spain as map-maker. Wanting a name for the new land in the west, he

called it "the land of Amerigo". In Latin, the language which every educated man understood and used in those days, this was *Americi terra*, and it is easy to see how this was shortened to *America*.

A little thought will show how important the discovery of America was. Men had learned, for the first time, that there was in the west an immense continent, very thinly peopled, rich in gold and min-



Cabot Memorial, St. John's,
Newfoundland

erals, and in everything needed to support life and make it pleasant.

It was a land open to all comers, and so large that there was room for everybody. Men who found life hard and dull at home in Europe, could find in the new land plenty to interest them and employ their best powers.

The Spaniards soon made settlements in America, and for years they drew from them such vast treasures that Spain became the richest and most powerful country in Europe.

But Englishmen were never slow to push out in search of adventure and novelty. They did not mean to let Spain have all the benefits of the discovery. The English sea-dogs, as they liked to be called, delighted to meet the ships of Spain upon the seas, and win from them, in fair fight, the spoils they were bringing home.

Many a voyage was made by the bold English seamen to the western world, and many an English ship came back to the old country laden with the wealth which was so abundant over the sea. But it was a hundred years before Englishmen made a serious attempt to settle in North America.

Then their settlements grew and flourished, and while Spain sank to a position of little importance in the world, England rose to the foremost place that Spain had lost. It was the English in the New World who laid the foundations of our republic, the United States of America.



THE MONUMENT TO COLUMBUS AT GENOA
The figure kneeling at his feet represents America,

THE KING AND THE CARDINAL

King Hal and the French War

When King Henry VII died in 1509, the whole English nation was delighted that his successor was the handsome Prince Hal. He was his father's second son, but his elder brother Arthur was dead, and he found himself king at the age of eighteen.

Henry was a tall, strong, handsome youth, clever at all outdoor sports and exercises, frank and hearty in manner, and ready to crack a joke with anyone. "Bluff King Hal" he was called by the people, who were glad that their new king was so different from his miserly father.

He was a good scholar, too, fond of books and music. Verses and tunes written by him are still in existence. He wrote and spoke in four languages, and knew something of medicine, engineering, and shipbuilding. He was especially learned in the views of wise men about religion and church matters, — subjects which he studied with immense care and pleasure.

On becoming king, he at once pleased the people by spending much of his father's gathered wealth in sports and shows. He got leave from the Pope to marry Katharine, the Spanish princess who had been the wife of his brother Arthur. He made Katharine his queen chiefly because he wished to

keep friendly with the important kingdom of Spain.

Henry was eager to make a name for himself, and to show Europe what an important man the King of England was, and he soon began to meddle with foreign affairs.

At that time Germany, France, and Spain were striving for the mastery of Italy, and the Pope, who was a great prince as well as head of the Church, was at the mercy of the rivals. Among them all he was likely to lose much of his power. So he made a league with the German Emperor and others, with the object of driving one of his enemies, the French, out of Italy.

Henry was persuaded to join this league, and he agreed to make an attack upon France. In 1513 he landed with an army of 25,000 men at Calais, which had belonged to England since its capture by Edward III a hundred and sixty years before.

The German Emperor met Henry at the head of his troops, and though he was an older man



Henry VIII (after Holbein)

and had fought many battles, he offered to serve as a volunteer under the young, untried English king. This he did because he wished to gain Henry for his friend, to suit his own purposes, and he thought that he would get Henry's support by flattering him.

The two armies laid siege to a small town in France, which they kept shut up for six weeks. Several vain attempts were made by the French to supply the townspeople with food, and at last a body of horsemen approached the town with orders to play a trick on the besiegers.

They were to pretend to retreat, and so draw the enemy after them, while other soldiers carried food into the town. So the French horsemen, when they came in sight of the besieging army, began to retire. Henry and the Emperor at once led their forces out against them, and then the French, struck with sudden terror, turned their sham retreat into a real and disorderly flight.

The English cavalry poured after them in rapid pursuit, and captured a large number of prisoners. Not a single man was killed; and when Henry jestingly praised the French for the excellent speed of their horses, one of the prisoners smiled and answered, "In truth, Sir, it was a battle of spurs". And as the Battle of Spurs it is known in history to this day.

All plans to relieve the towns having failed, Henry captured Terouenne and another fortress

named Tournai. But peace was soon afterwards made; for Henry discovered that his allies thought of no one but themselves. He knew he was not strong enough to conquer France alone, and all his money was gone. He had nothing to gain by fighting any longer.

Flodden Field

While Henry was in France, there was trouble at home. Scotland was at that time a separate kingdom from England, and its king, James IV, had married Margaret, Henry's sister. He took advantage of the absence of the English king, to seek revenge for the injuries he had suffered at the hands of the English.

He complained of several wrongs done to him. To begin with, when he married the English princess, her father had promised that she should have, at his death, a large number of valuable jewels. These her brother Henry had not yet sent, and did not seem likely to send.

Again, the men who lived on either side of the Border were constantly robbing and plundering and slaying one another. James complained that if the offenders were Englishmen, the English officials would not give them up to justice; but that if they were Scotsmen, the English seized them in their own country, and carried them into prison in England.

For these and other causes James resolved to make war. He got a great army together, composed of all classes, high and low, trained and untrained, and marched across the Border. The Scots captured a few castles, but their march was delayed by James, who, though brave, often gave way to idleness and the pursuit of pleasure.

This delay gave time for the English commander, the Earl of Surrey, to bring up a large force of tried soldiers. James took up a strong position on the hill of Flodden in Northumberland, but foolishly allowed the English to get round to his rear, where he was more open to attack.

Thus the English army lay between the Scots and their own country, and the Scots owed their bad position to the imprudence of their brave but foolhardy king.

The battle began on the afternoon of September 9, 1513. James, against the advice of his nobles, commanded the center of his army in person.

At the first furious onset, the right wing of the English army was thrown into disorder, and Sir Edmund Howard, the English commander, narrowly escaped being killed. But while the Scots were plundering as though the battle were won, the English cavalry under Lord Dacre advanced at full speed, charged the Scots, and completely routed them.

Meanwhile, on the left, the English archers, under

Sir Edward Stanley, had poured deadly showers of arrows into the ranks of the Scottish right wing, which consisted of Highlanders, who had little armor. Eager to escape the fatal arrows, and to fight at close quarters, the Scots rushed on, whirling their axes and claymores.



James IV of Scotland

The English gave way for a moment, but quickly recovered and stood shoulder to shoulder, presenting a wall of lances and bills. The Scots had spent all their strength in the first attack, and in spite of their desperate valor they were driven back in hopeless ruin.

In the center James was fighting valiantly among his spearmen, and the English could at first make no impression upon the enemy's ranks. But at last Stanley came up from his victory on the left, and Lord Thomas Howard from the right, and the Scots were beset on three sides at once.

Still they kept up the fight, till James fell, pierced by countless wounds. His nobles fought and died round his body, but darkness came on and put an end to the battle. The slaughter had been great on

both sides, and the loss of their king had so broken the spirit of the Scots that the survivors sadly retired from the field, leaving victory with the English.

So was the battle of Flodden lost and won — a battle bravely fought on both sides. The blood-stained plaid, taken from the body of the hapless King James, was sent to Queen Katharine of England. She had promised Henry to guard the kingdom carefully while he was away, and she had encouraged the English officers when they set out for the north.

Now she proudly sent to her husband the trophy of victory. “In this,” she wrote to him, “your Grace shall see how I keep my promise, sending you for your banner a king’s coat.”

Thomas Wolsey

For a number of years the greatest man in England, after the king, was Thomas Wolsey, the king’s friend and adviser.

Wolsey was a very proud and ambitious man, and during his life of fifty-nine years he made many enemies. They were jealous of him, and tried to put a slight upon him by saying that he was the son of a butcher, as if the occupation of his father would make a difference. But his father was really a grazier and wool-merchant at Ipswich, where Thomas was born in the year 1471.



“EGO ET REX MEUS”

From the painting by Sir John Gilbert, R.A., in the Guildhall, London

He was a very clever boy. By the time that he was fifteen years old he had taken the Bachelor's degree at Magdalen College, Oxford. By and by he became master of Magdalen College School, and then he went as rector to a little Somerset village.

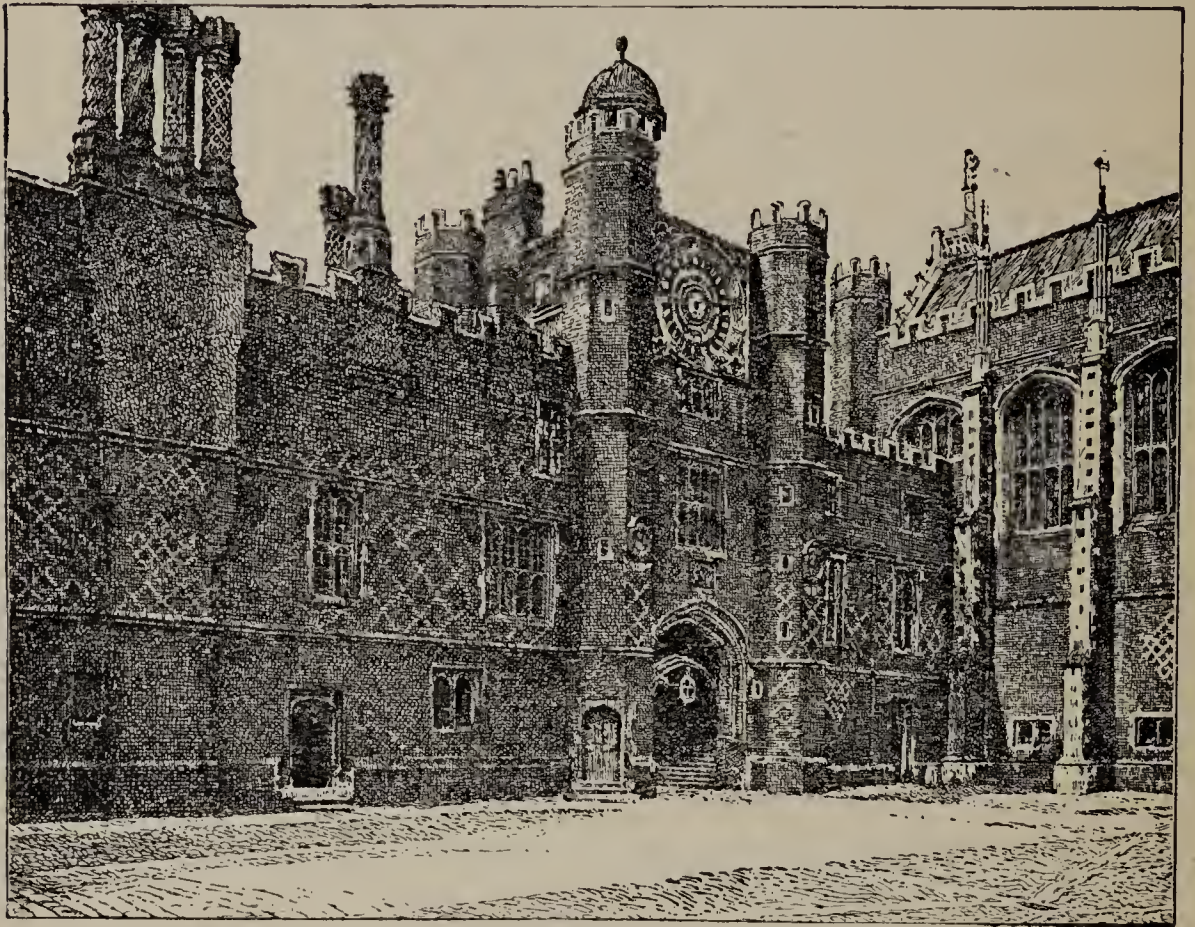
But he soon left the quiet of the country, and became one of the chaplains of King Henry VII, and assisted Henry's ministers in the business of the country. He soon showed what an able man he was, and was rewarded for his work by being made Dean of Lincoln; for in those days offices in the Church were given to men chiefly as rewards for helping the king.

When Henry VIII became king, he made Wolsey his chief minister. He gave him the bishopric of Lincoln, and only a few months later made him Archbishop of York. In the very next year he was made a cardinal by the Pope, and soon he became not only the Pope's legate, but also Chancellor of England.

He now lived in great splendor. Some of his houses, such as Hampton Court, were so fine that after his death they were made royal palaces. He kept an enormous household, and earned the bitter enmity of the nobles by the display of his wealth, and by the favors he enjoyed with the king. They hated the butcher's cur, as they called him.

Wolsey had two great ambitions — one for himself, the other for his country. For himself, he

wished to be Pope; for England, he wished to make her the foremost country in Europe, the country in whose hands lay the questions of peace and war.



Hampton Court Palace. The Clock Court. Etc.

At this time the two greatest sovereigns in Europe, the German Emperor Charles, and Francis the French king, were each striving to gain more power than the other. They were both anxious to get the support of Henry, for the great victory at Flodden had shown them how useful an English army might be to them.

Wolsey wished Henry to be friendly with both

Charles and Francis, but not to take sides with either of them in their struggles. He thought that, instead of helping them, Henry might be able to use them to increase his own power and importance in Europe.

Now it had been agreed that Henry and Francis should meet near Calais, and spend some time together in a friendly way. Wolsey did not wish Henry to become a firm ally of Francis, so he wrote to Charles suggesting that he too should have a meeting with Henry. To this the Emperor agreed, and he came across to England and met Henry, only a few days before the English king set out for France.

It was on the last day of May that Henry set sail from Dover, and made for Calais on the opposite shore.

The Field of the Cloth of Gold

Wolsey was fond of fine dress and grand display, and in making the arrangements for the meeting of the kings, he did his utmost to make it as splendid as possible.

Hundreds of English workmen were sent to Calais to prepare for the reception of the king and his Court — bricklayers and carpenters, masons and decorators, gold-workers and armorers. Wolsey himself chose the nobles who were to accompany

the king, and the favored lords spent vast sums in preparing themselves and their servants for the journey.

One writer says that “many lords bore thither to the meeting their mills, their forests, and their meadows on their backs”, meaning that they had sold their property in order to pay for their fine clothes.

The king took with him to France more than five thousand persons, and nearly three thousand horses. No one of his Court was more splendid than the great cardinal, whose personal followers numbered eight hundred men.

The place of meeting was a meadow near Calais. Tents and huts and booths had been erected around



Francis I of France

the town, and the camp was bright with flags and colors and splendid decorations. Equal labor and money had been spent on the French side, and the splendor was such, that the meeting-place was called the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

There the two kings met, dressed in all

their finery and jewels. Weeks were spent in feasts and tournaments among the nobles, in wrestling and shooting matches and all kinds of frolics among the men-at-arms.

Henry and Francis gave each other costly presents, and talked long together about great matters of state. They professed to love each other sincerely, and no doubt many promises were made on both sides. But really the whole meeting was only a splendid sham.

Each king was in fact thinking only of his own interests; and but a few weeks after they had parted, Henry met the Emperor Charles, the French king's bitter enemy. Charles and Henry made a secret treaty, in which Henry made the same promises that he had just made to Francis. The result was that Henry was really trusted by neither.

But the object of Wolsey was partly attained. Charles and Francis both saw that it would be well for them to keep on good terms with England, and both were anxious not to offend Henry and make him a downright enemy.

The Fall of Wolsey

For seven years after the meeting of the kings, Wolsey continued to be the trusted servant of King Henry, and worked hard for the good of his country. He served Henry faithfully and unselfishly, and took

on himself the blame and dislike which some of the king's acts incurred.

Henry, as he grew older, became a selfish and cruel tyrant, and when Wolsey at last failed to carry out his wishes, he treated the great man with base ingratitude. The story of Wolsey's fall is a sad one.

Henry had fallen in love with a lady of the Court named Anne Boleyn, who wished the king to marry her and make her queen. Anne was young and pretty and gay, and the king wanted to get rid of his quiet, serious Queen Katharine.

So he began to pretend that he had done wrong in marrying his brother's widow, even though the Pope, as head of the Church, had given him leave to do so. He wanted the Pope to say now that the marriage had been wrong, and to allow him to put away Katharine and marry Anne; and he expected Wolsey to arrange the matter.

But the Pope saw that Henry's wishes were wrong; and, even if they had been right, it would have been impossible for him to enable Henry to attain them. He was a prisoner, for Rome was in the hands of the troops of the Emperor Charles. Katharine was the aunt of Charles, and the Pope dared not offend him.

All that he would do was to send an Italian cardinal to England to join Wolsey in hearing both sides of the matter. But he did not mean them to

decide the question, and he wished to put off deciding it himself.

The two cardinals at first tried to induce Henry to change his mind. When they found this impossible, they tried to persuade the queen to agree to leave her husband; but she would not do so, knowing that she had right on her side.

When the cardinals at last began to hear the case in court, the Italian did his utmost to delay coming to a decision. Henry blamed Wolsey for the delay, and began to show his anger against him, though Wolsey was really doing his very best for his master.

A month passed, and when Henry came into court expecting judgment to be declared, the Italian cardinal rose and put off the matter for two months. The king was terribly angry, and so were his nobles. The Duke of Suffolk slapped a table and cried, "It was never merry in England whilst we had cardinals among us."

Wolsey turned upon him with scorn, for he had befriended the duke in many ways: "Sir," he said, "of all men within this realm you have least cause to dispraise or be offended at cardinals; for if I, a simple cardinal, had not been, you should have had at this present no head upon your shoulders."

Though Wolsey spoke so boldly in the presence of the king, he knew that he was a ruined man. Now that the king was displeased with him, his many enemies began to work for their revenge.

He was accused of acting as legate of the Pope in England, contrary to a law passed in the reign of Edward III. Wolsey had no defense; for though he had done this at the wish of the king, yet, when the king ceased to support him, he could say nothing for himself.

He was ordered to give up the Great Seal which he held as Chancellor, and to retire to his house at Esher. On the way he received the present of a ring from Henry, which gave him hope of winning back the king's favor. He wished to send a gift to the king in return, but he was now so poor that he had nothing worthy of his sovereign's acceptance.

Among his servants, however, was a jester, who was so clever that Wolsey said he was worth a thousand pounds. The cardinal thought of sending him to the king. But "the poor fool took on so, and fired so in such a rage when he saw that he must needs depart from my lord", that six tall yeomen had to be sent with him to get him safely to the king's palace. It is pleasant to see that Wolsey's own servants were fond of him.

Last Days of Wolsey

At Christmas time, Wolsey's troubles made him very ill, and Henry sent his own doctor to him. "I would not lose him for twenty thousand pounds," he said.

“Then,” replied the doctor, “your Grace must send him some comfortable message as shortly as is possible.” Henry took a favorite ring from his finger and gave it to the doctor, saying: “Tell him that I am not offended with him in my heart nothing at all, and that shall he perceive, and God send him life very shortly.”

On Wolsey’s recovery, the king gave him a full pardon, but his enemies were so powerful that he had to give up all his offices except the Archbishopric of York. By and by he left Esher and set out for the north.

A writer of that time says: “Who was less beloved in the north than my lord cardinal before he was amongst them? Who better beloved after he had been there a while? He gave the bishops a right good example how they might win men’s hearts.

“There were few holy days but he would ride five or six miles from his house, now to this parish church, now to that, and there cause one or other of his doctors to make a sermon unto the people. He inquired whether there were any debate or grudge between any of his visitors. If there were, after dinner he sent for the parties to the church, and made them all one.”

Meanwhile his enemies were still trying to ruin him utterly. It was discovered that he wrote letters to servants of the French king and of the Emperor

Charles, and Henry ordered him to be brought to London to be tried for treason.

Wolsey was sitting quietly in his room when the Earl of Northumberland entered. He welcomed his visitor with a smile; but the earl, trembling, laid his hand upon his arm, and said to him, with a very faint and soft voice: "My lord, I arrest you of high treason."

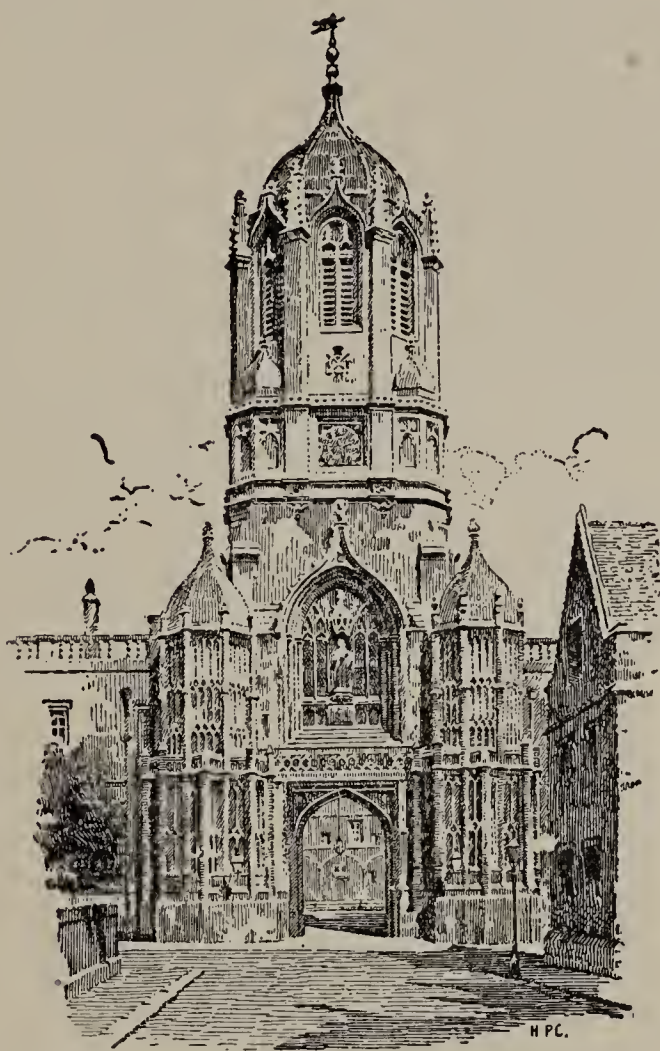
Wolsey was speechless with astonishment. This fresh act of cruel injustice broke his bold spirit, and when he set out for London he looked a worn-out old man. His servants wept at parting from him; a crowd of country people met him at the gate and cried: "God save your Grace! The foul evil take all them that have thus taken you from us; we pray God that a very vengeance may light on them."

Late on a Saturday night he reached Leicester Abbey, so weak and ill that he had to be carried into it from his mule. "Father Abbot," he said, "I am come hither to leave my bones among you." For two days he lay there dying; then, at eight o'clock on the Tuesday morning, November 27, 1530, the great man passed away.

In his last hours he sadly regretted that he had given so much time to State matters, and so little to his duty as a clergyman. "If I had served God so diligently as I have done the king," he said, "He would not have given me over in my grey hairs."

He had a good word for his cruel master. "He is

sure a prince of a royal courage, and hath a princely heart.” But he said also: “ Rather than he will either miss or want any part of his will or appetite, he will put the loss of one half of his realm in



Tom Tower, Christ Church, Oxford

danger. For I assure you I have often kneeled before him in his privy chamber on my knees the space of an hour or two, to persuade him from his will and appetite; but I could never dissuade him therefrom.”

Wolsey was one of England's great statesmen,

though the value of what he did and would have done for his country was for a long time not understood. Eager as he was for his own greatness, he was still more eager to make England great. Fond as he was of display, it must be remembered that he spent much of his wealth wisely and for his country's good.

He was beginning to found two colleges, one at Ipswich, his native town, and the other at Oxford; this latter he meant to be a magnificent memorial of himself under the name Cardinal College. He only lived to see the hall of his Oxford college built; but the king finished his work, and the college, under the name of Christ Church, remains to remind us of the great cardinal who served his king too well.

THE REFORMATION

The New Leaven

“ A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump.” The new ideas that were stirring in men’s minds at this time raised questions about all manner of things. The men of an earlier age had been content to believe what their fathers had told them. But the old answers, which had satisfied their fathers, were not enough for eager minds that had begun to find out things for themselves.

The men of the Renaissance had recovered the old learning of Greece and Rome. They had found for themselves a new world in the west at which the ancient writers had only guessed. The earth itself, they were told by Copernicus, the great astronomer of the age, was only a planet swinging round the sun.

Men whose eyes had thus been opened, and who were using their minds so fearlessly, were not likely to stop short of the deepest questions of all. The time had come for men to think anew about religion and the Church. The result was seen in two great movements — the Protestant Reformation, when the northern nations broke away from obedience to Rome; and the Counter-Reformation, when those who remained in the Church set themselves to reform it from within.

Martin Luther and the Protestant Reformation

In a village of north Germany Martin Luther was born in a peasant's cottage in 1483. His father Hans was a miner, hard-working, thrifty, and pious. Hans wanted to make his boy a lawyer, and sent him early to the village school.

Martin's teacher did not spare the rod, and perhaps it was the memory of what he suffered at school that made Martin Luther afterwards so gentle to children. "I was myself flogged", he says, "fifteen times in one forenoon over the conjugation of a verb."

For all that, young Martin got on well. He was sent later to a neighboring town, where he was admitted as a "poor scholar". As he had a good ear for music and a fine voice, he was allowed to



Martin Luther

make money by singing ballads in the streets from door to door. A good lady of the town, struck by his face and manner, took the lad into her house and became his friend.

Three years later Martin became a student at the Univer-

sity, and in 1505 took his degree. “What a moment of majesty and splendor was that,” he writes, “when on taking the degree of Master, torches were carried before me and honors were paid to me. I think that no worldly joy can equal it.”

Worldly joy, however, was not the aim of Martin Luther. To the surprise of his father and his friends, he suddenly became a monk. Whole nights he spent kneeling on the stone floor of his cell. When plague broke out in the city, he alone of the brethren stayed at his post, helping the sick when they had no other helper.

In 1508 Luther was removed to Wittenberg on the Elbe, where his preaching drew crowds to the University Church. Later he was sent on business to Rome, trudging barefoot and penniless, but glad at the thought of seeing the holy city. A rude awakening was in store for him. For Rome was full of wickedness, and the best men of the Church cried out in vain for reform.

Sad at heart, Luther returned to Wittenberg, where he now became professor in the University. Students flocked to his lectures. “This monk is a marvelous fellow,” said one. “He has strange eyes, and will give the doctors trouble by and by.”

This forecast came true before many years had passed. The trouble arose over the granting of what were called “indulgences”. To understand what this means we must remember that on every

sin the Church laid a fitting penance; from this penance the Pope now promised to excuse all who would offer instead a gift of money to be used for the rebuilding of St. Peter's Church at Rome.

Such was the idea of the "indulgence" in the minds of the learned—release not from the guilt



Luther's Study in the Wartburg, where he was secluded (p. 69)

of sin, or its punishment hereafter, but from the penance which the Church imposed. Some of those who were collecting the money, however, took no pains to make the people understand the meaning of the indulgence, so long as the money was paid;

and so to the simple it looked as if for a few coins they could buy forgiveness of any sin they liked to commit. It grieved Luther that these poor people should think they could buy pardon with money and without repentance and a change of heart.

To combat this error, Luther wrote a statement of what he held to be the true view of the case, and this statement he nailed to the door of his church in Wittenberg. It was eagerly read, and copies of it were printed and scattered through Germany.

Luther still was, and wished to remain, a faithful son of the Church of Rome. But this famous document of his, with its many arguments, did not agree in all points with the teaching of the Church. So he was summoned to debate the matter in public. When told he must give up the opinions which the Church condemned, he replied that he would do so willingly, but only if the opinions were shown to be wrong. So the quarrel grew greater instead of less.

As the debate went on, Luther found that he differed from the teaching of the Church on many other questions besides that of indulgences. But he went forward without fear. "To clear the air," he said, "thunder and lightning are needed;" and he gave both. In his fiery zeal he did not shrink from using hot and angry words.

At last the Pope issued a sealed edict, or bull, condemning the teaching of Luther and calling him

to withdraw it. Luther was not daunted. In solemn procession, he led the students and doctors of the University outside the gates of Wittenberg, and there on the banks of the Elbe, amid the cheers of the crowd, he burned the Pope's bull.

In 1521 the young Emperor, Charles V, held a diet, or council, at Worms on the Rhine, and sent a herald to Wittenberg summoning Luther to appear before him. Should he go? A promise was given that no harm would befall him, but a promise was a weak defense against treacherous foes. To Worms he went, however, and appeared before the Emperor.

"There on the raised dais", writes one of Luther's admirers, "sat the sovereign of half the world. There on either side of him stood the ministers of state, the princes of the empire, gathered

together to hear and judge the son of a poor miner, who had made the world ring with his name."

The question was put to him: Would he recant his opinions? His answer was plain and fearless:

"I may not and will not recant, be-



Charles V of Spain

cause to act against conscience is unholy and unsafe. So help me, God! Amen.”

So Luther was condemned. Still, the Emperor had given his promise that Luther might come to Worms and return in safety. He set out, therefore, on his way back to Wittenberg. But he had not gone far when he was surrounded by armed horsemen, who carried him off to a lonely castle. These were really friends in disguise, who took this way of hiding Luther from his enemies. Here, under the name of “Squire George”, he spent a year translating the Bible into German, and helping the cause he had at heart.

“Luther’s voice”, it has been said, “awoke echoes he never dreamt of.” From his quiet retreat he was called back to still disorders that had broken out in Germany. For, in spite of Luther’s counsel, the peasants, who had long been in a state of unrest, were stirred by the new teaching to rebel against their lords. Dark days followed, when Luther often had to rebuke lawless deeds done in the name of the new faith. Yet amid strife and disorder the foundations of the new German Church were laid.

Luther lived for twenty-five years after being condemned by Emperor and Pope, and when he died his work went on. A great part of Germany together with England, Scotland, Denmark, and Sweden was severed from the Church of Rome. In France, too, many accepted the reformed faith.

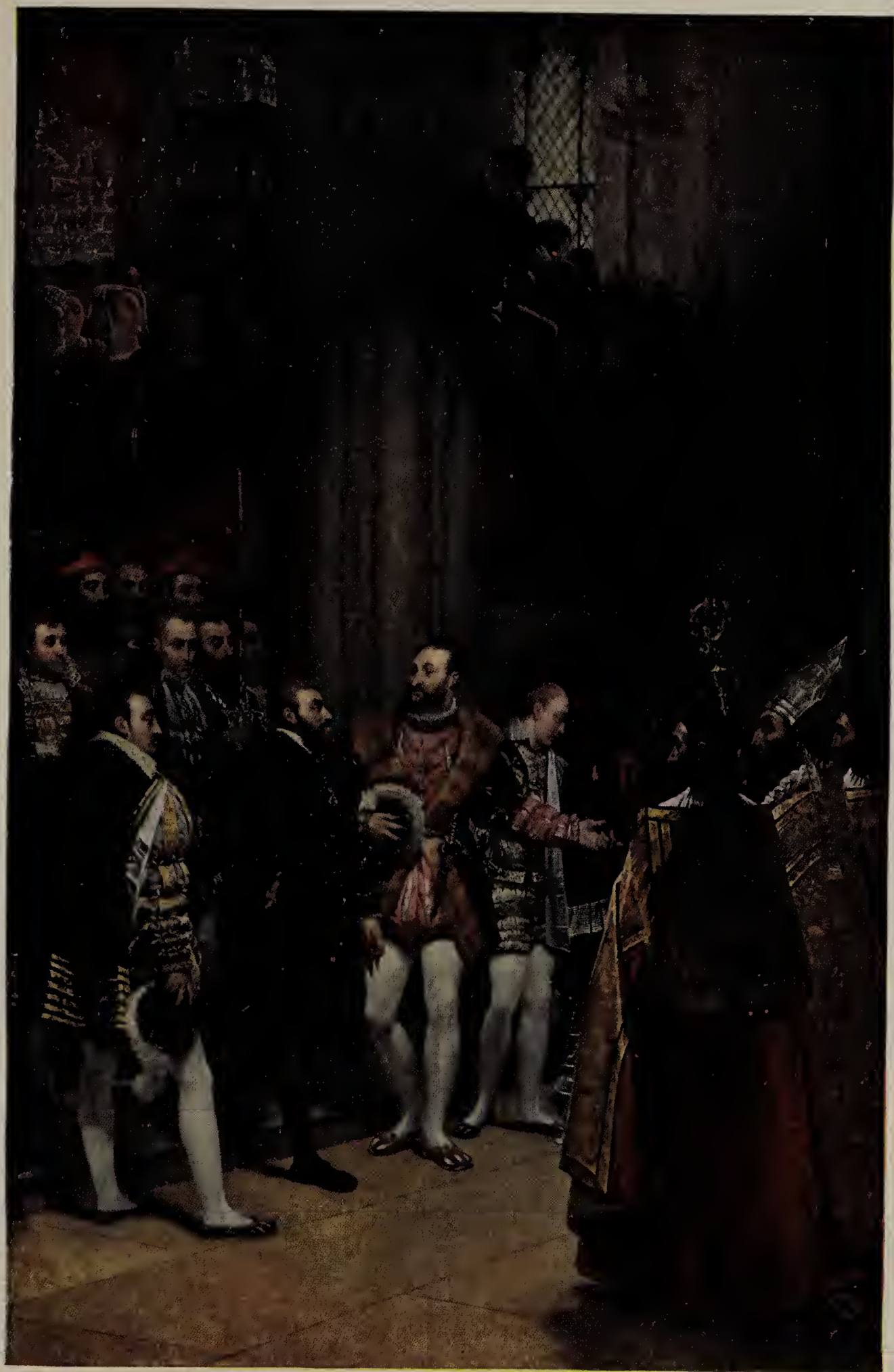
Meanwhile, within the Church of Rome itself, a great movement of reform was going on. Wicked men were no longer allowed to hold office. A great Church Council met in 1545, at Trent in the Tyrol, to settle questions of doctrine. And at the heart of all this work of reform was one man, whose story we are now to hear.

Ignatius Loyola and the Catholic Revival

While Luther stood before the Emperor at the Diet of Worms in 1521, a young Spanish knight was fighting on the walls of an old city in Navarre. The French had crossed the Pyrenees and were laying siege to the city, which held out bravely for the Emperor till it was overcome. In the last assault the young knight was wounded by a cannon ball, which shattered one of his legs.

Ignatius, for such was his name, was kindly treated by the French, who sent him in a litter to his father's castle of Loyola. The one hope of the young knight was to be well again and able for fighting. As a boy he had served as a page at the brilliant Court of Ferdinand and Isabella, and all his daydreams were of the holy war against the Moors. Like Don Quixote, he loved to read the romances of chivalry.

The doctors who attended him said that the bone must be broken again if the wounded leg was to



FRANCIS I AND CHARLES V VISITING THE TOMBS OF ST. DENIS

From the painting by Baron Gros in the Louvre, Paris

grow straight. Ignatius bore this with no sign of pain save a clenched fist. But weary months followed, during which he lay on a bed of fever, and when at last he was able to rise, it was with one leg so shrunk that he could no longer ride to battle.

These months, however, had made a deeper change in him than that. He had been reading of the saints and heroes of the Church, and it was to its service that he now gave himself. He would become a knight of Christ. The plan that he formed for the saving of the Church was a soldier's plan. For in spite of his lameness, he was a soldier still. With broad brow, and small, piercing eyes deep set in his olive face, he was a man to be reckoned with.

First he set about to prepare himself for his new work. He gave himself to a life of prayer and fasting, dwelling alone in a cave. When he mixed with the world, it was to do the humblest services, tending the sick and wretched. Then he went on pilgrimage, going on foot to Rome and Venice, and thence to Jerusalem.



Ignatius Loyola

His travels showed him how little he knew of the world of men which he wished to win for the Church, so when he returned he set himself to learn. Though he was thirty-three years of age, he began at the beginning: going to school, and passing later to the Universities of Spain, and at last to Paris. Here he fell in with some young men of like mind with himself, and laid before them his plan.

In 1540 the Pope gave this plan his approval. A new religious order was formed, called the Society of Jesus, whose members, the Jesuits, bound themselves to go as missionaries to any country which the Pope might choose. Like soldiers, their whole duty was to obey, and they were ruled by a general, Ignatius Loyola. Yet it was not enough to obey in outward things; they were trained also in the *Spiritual Exercises*, the great book which Ignatius wrote for their guidance.

The Jesuits set themselves to combat the work of the Protestant reformers. They did more. Jesuit missionaries, like Francis Xavier, went to India, to China, to Brazil, seeking to win the whole earth to the Catholic faith. This world-wide mission did something to make up for the loss that the ancient Church had sustained in the north of Europe.

In every country in Europe the Jesuits pursued their work. The teaching of the young they made their special care. At the Council of Trent their voice was raised against the teaching of Luther and

the Protestants. Within the Church of Rome they brought back obedience and order, and even in Protestant countries they made their influence felt.

Henry VIII as Head of the Church in England

The quarrel between Henry VIII of England and the Pope over the question of his marriage with Katharine of Aragon had very important results. After Wolsey's death, the king again tried to get leave from the Pope to put away Queen Katharine and marry Anne Boleyn. As the Pope still refused what Henry had set his heart on, the quarrel became very bitter, and seemed unlikely to come to an end.

A Cambridge lecturer named Thomas Cranmer, in talking with the king's secretary, had suggested that if the Pope would not give way, Henry might ask the opinion of the learned men of Europe as to whether his first marriage was lawful. Henry was much pleased with the notion, and at once began to show favor to Cranmer.

Letters were sent to the heads of all the universities in Europe, asking them to consider the question with great care, and to let the King of England know what decision they came to. Unhappily, Henry was more anxious to get a favorable opinion than an honest one, and immense sums of money were spent in bribing the learned men. After all, only half of them decided that Henry had done

wrong in marrying his brother's widow, and thus he was again bitterly disappointed.

Another reformer, bolder than Cranmer, now rose to a chief position in King Henry's council. This man was Thomas Cromwell, the son of a blacksmith at Putney. When quite a youth, he thought it best to leave England because of some disgraceful conduct, and served as a common soldier in the French army in Italy.

Then he became a clerk at Antwerp, and by and by returned to England, married, and engaged in business. He was a cloth merchant, a lawyer, and a money-lender, and by dint of hard work and his natural cleverness, he became a man of wealth and importance.

Wolsey noticed the young man's ability, took him into his service, and had him elected a Member of Parliament. When the cardinal was making plans for the building of his colleges at Oxford and Ipswich, he found Cromwell useful in getting the necessary money together.



Thomas Cromwell

Cromwell served his master faithfully; and when the great cardinal

had lost the favor of the king, and his enemies were seeking to ruin him, Cromwell took his part manfully, and did what he could to defend him. After Wolsey's death he entered the king's service, and in a few years he became his trusted adviser, and rose to a position as great as the cardinal's had been.

Both Cromwell and Cranmer felt that the time was now ripe for a reformation of the Church in England and they believed this could best be done if the Pope's power were overthrown. Henry was quite willing to accept this view inasmuch as the Pope still refused to grant his request in the marriage question. Accordingly he persuaded Parliament to pass acts abolishing all the Pope's authority over the Church of England and recognizing the King as the Supreme Head of the Church as well as of the State in England. To this the English clergy were forced to agree.

Cranmer was now made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he at once held a court to decide the great marriage question. In a very short time Henry's first marriage was declared unlawful, and a week later, the king's new wife, Anne Boleyn, was crowned queen by the Archbishop. Cromwell was appointed the king's chief adviser in church affairs.

The Ruin of the Monasteries

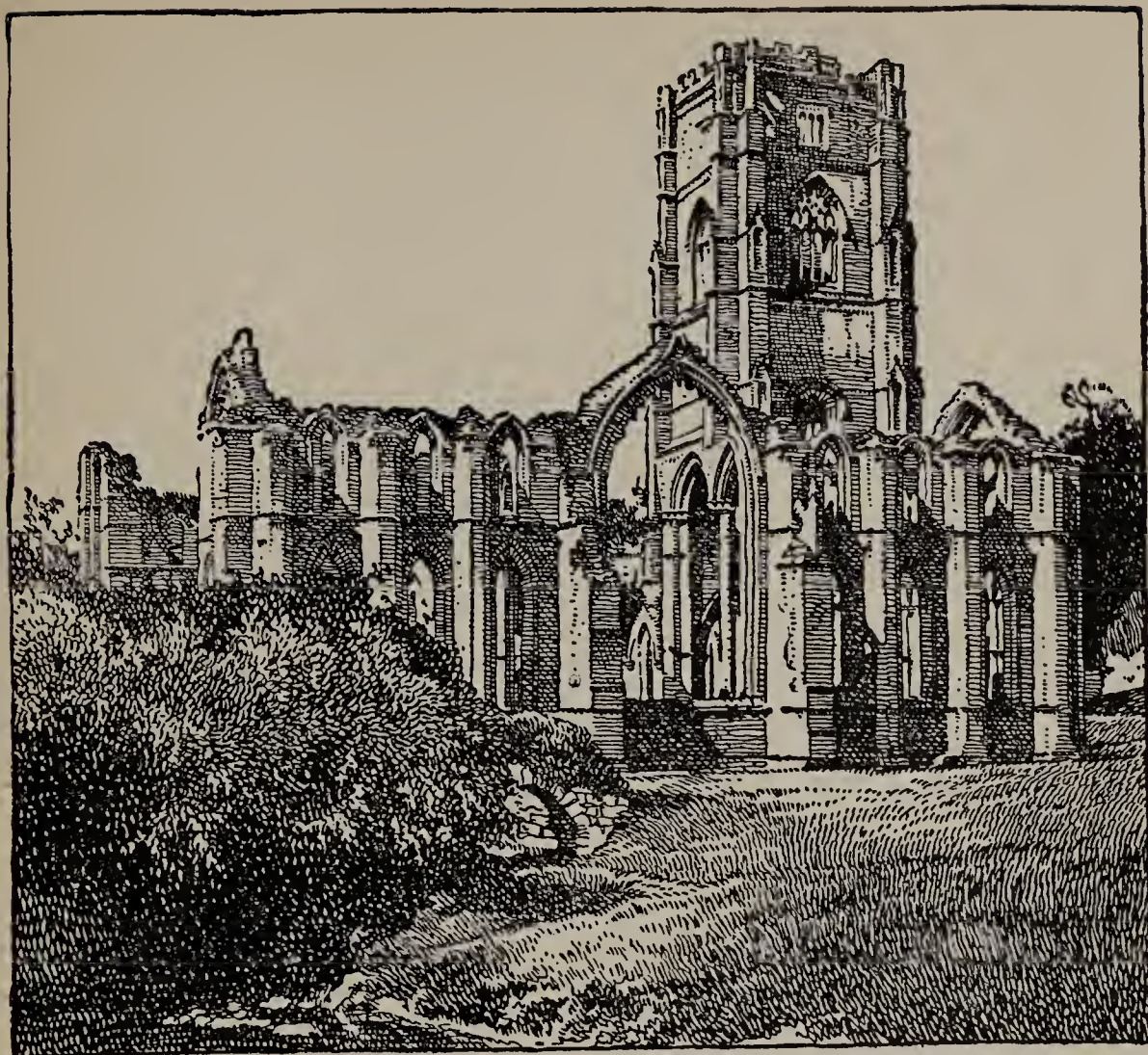
Henry had now utterly defied the authority of the Pope; and, acting on the advice of Cromwell, he proceeded still further in his course. The king took into his own hands the appointment of bishops and began the reform of religious instruction and ceremonies, while Cromwell compelled the clergy to preach sermons against the Pope, and in favor of Henry as head of the Church in England.

The Pope replied by excommunicating Henry, declaring him to be no longer King of England, and giving permission to anybody who pleased to take the crown from him.

An Act of Parliament was now passed which required people to declare that Henry had done rightly, according to the law of the Church, in sending away his wife Katharine and marrying Anne. There were many men who thought that he was entirely in the wrong, and who nobly refused to make such a declaration. Numbers of such men were cruelly put to death for their refusal.

Cromwell now advised the king to set about another measure which caused terrible misery in various parts of England, and made both Henry and his adviser hated throughout the land.

Spread over the country there were some six hundred monasteries, that is, places where men or women lived apart from other people, because they



Fountains Abbey. One of the monasteries destroyed by Henry VIII

had promised to devote their lives to study and prayer and good works. When these monasteries were founded, people thought that the only way to live a really good life was to become a monk or a nun, and keep away from the temptations and the work and pleasures of the world.

But the monks and nuns who lived in these monasteries did not spend the whole of their time in prayer and study. They often worked hard in many ways,

and led useful lives. They kept schools in which they taught many children; they cultivated land and cleared forests; they drained pestilent marshes, and looked after the poor and the sick.

They built splendid churches, and copied books, and wrote records of the history of the country. Their houses were open to every traveler, and many a weary horseman and footsore wanderer found rest and refreshment among them.

But there are bad men everywhere, and some of the monks did not strictly keep their vow to live sober and godly lives. They were sometimes more eager to be rich than to be good. Cromwell made the wrongdoing of some the excuse for acts of cruel injustice against all.

The king was very extravagant and always in need of money, but he was always reluctant to ask Parliament to levy taxes for him. He was anxious not to seem to oppress the nation. So when Cromwell proposed to shut up some of the monasteries and take their property for the king, Henry was delighted.

Cromwell sent men into all parts of the country to examine the smaller monasteries, and to see whether the monks and nuns lived good lives and did good work. These men knew what Cromwell would like their report to be, so they told him that in the monasteries examined the conduct of the inmates was wicked in the extreme. This was not true of them

all, but Cromwell's men made the case out as bad as they possibly could.

When Cromwell received this report, he could say: "You see how shocking the conduct of these monks and nuns is. It would be a sin to allow such wickedness to go on any longer, and the king will be doing a good action in putting an end to it."

So he sold the property of the monasteries, took away their lands and treasures, and turned the inmates out to find other homes. The wealth which he thus got he gave to the king, who gave some of it back to Cromwell as a reward, and some to lords of his Court.

The Pilgrimage of Grace

The treatment of the monks and nuns gave rise to great indignation. In the north of England, then a poor part of the country, many of the people burned with anger against Cromwell. The monks had been their friends, and the teachers of their children, — had been kind to the poor, and encouraged trade; and the people disliked to see them ill-treated.

A rebellion arose, headed by a lawyer named Robert Aske and some lords. Hundreds of men, poor and rich, flocked together, until a great force was collected, which marched southwards, demanding that Cromwell should be dismissed from office, and that changes in religion should cease.

The Duke of Norfolk, sent by the king to meet the rebels, had only a small army, and he feared that he would be beaten. So he was instructed to promise that the king would pardon them, and hold a parliament at York to consider the things of which they complained. This promise was relied on by their leaders, who cast off the badge they had worn as a sign that they shared in the rebellion, and cried, "We will wear no badge but that of our lord the king!"

The nobles and farmers went back to their homes cheerfully; but the king's promise was broken, — nobles and abbots were hanged and beheaded, and one woman was burned to death. The rebellion, known as the Pilgrimage of Grace, was thus terribly punished.

The money got by the shutting of the smaller monasteries did not last long, and very soon the larger ones also were closed, till there was not a monastery left in the kingdom which had not been plundered and ruined. Part of the wealth thus obtained was devoted to the founding of new bishoprics and the building of new churches; but most of it was kept by the king for his own use, or given to his favorite courtiers.

Whatever the truth about the monasteries may be, Henry in dealing with them acted as a tyrant, and his tyranny went even further. An English cardinal, named Reginald Pole, had written a book against

Henry's claim to be the head of the Church. Because of this, Pole's elder brother, Lord Montagu, and another relative, the Marquis of Exeter, were beheaded, and even Pole's aged mother, the Countess of Salisbury, by and by met the same fate.

The New Religious Faith

Side by side with this movement against the Pope and the wealth of the Church, there was going on a more quiet change of religious belief. For some years learned men had been teaching that some of the things which were commonly taught were not true.

This change, as we have seen, began first in Germany, but it quickly spread to all the countries north of the Alps, and in each led to civil wars and bitter strife.

In our days people think that what a man believes is a matter for his own conscience; in those days they thought all men should believe alike. And so, for many years, both Catholics and Protestants, when they had the power, treated each other very cruelly.

One of the points on which the Protestants differed from the Catholics was as to the Bible. Most of the Catholics thought that people should not read the Bible for themselves, but should only have it read and explained to them by clergymen. But

the Protestants thought that every man should read the Bible for himself, and they wished it to be translated out of the learned languages in which it was written, into the language of the common people.

Some of the Catholics thought so too. One of them, a wise Dutch scholar named Erasmus, was anxious that the Bible should be translated into every known language. "I long," he said, "for the day when the husbandman shall sing portions of the gospels to himself as he follows the plough, when the weaver shall hum them to the time of his shuttle, when the traveler shall while away with their stories the weariness of his journey."

Now, when the teaching of Luther and others reached England, Henry was at first very much

against it. He even wrote a book against Luther, which he sent to the Pope, and for which the Pope rewarded him with the title of Defender of the Faith.

But by and by, when Henry himself had had his great quarrel with the Pope, it was natural that he



Hugh Latimer, Bishop of Worcester

should think a little less hardly of those who disagreed with the Pope on matters of belief. There were a few Protestants already in England, and their numbers were slowly growing, and already included a few of the chief clergy, such as Hugh Latimer, Bishop of Worcester.

When Henry declared himself head of the Church, he began to think that he could order people to believe just what he pleased. So he made some changes in the articles of religion, that is, the written statement of the Church's beliefs, and the changes that he made were such as some of the Catholics themselves agreed with.

Henry himself denied that he was a Protestant; and when the Protestants tried to make their beliefs the established religion of the country, he was very angry.

He got Parliament to pass what was called the Act of Six Articles, which were six doctrines that Henry said everybody ought to believe. The Act inflicted severe punishments on those who said anything against the six articles, and even Latimer, who was a favorite with the king, had to give up his bishopric, and was imprisoned for a year, because he could not agree with these articles. Other men, who had less of the king's favor, were put to death.

Religious Persecutions

One thing Henry did, by Cromwell's advice, which in the end made England a Protestant country. He ordered a translation of the Bible to be made in English, and a copy to be placed in every church. There had been English translations before, but they had not been in the hands of people generally, and had only been read secretly and in fear.

Miles Coverdale, a Yorkshireman, who had been a friar at Cambridge, but had become a Protestant, had been for some years helping his friend William Tyndal to translate the Bible. In the year 1536 the first printed copies of the Bible in English were brought into England from Switzerland.

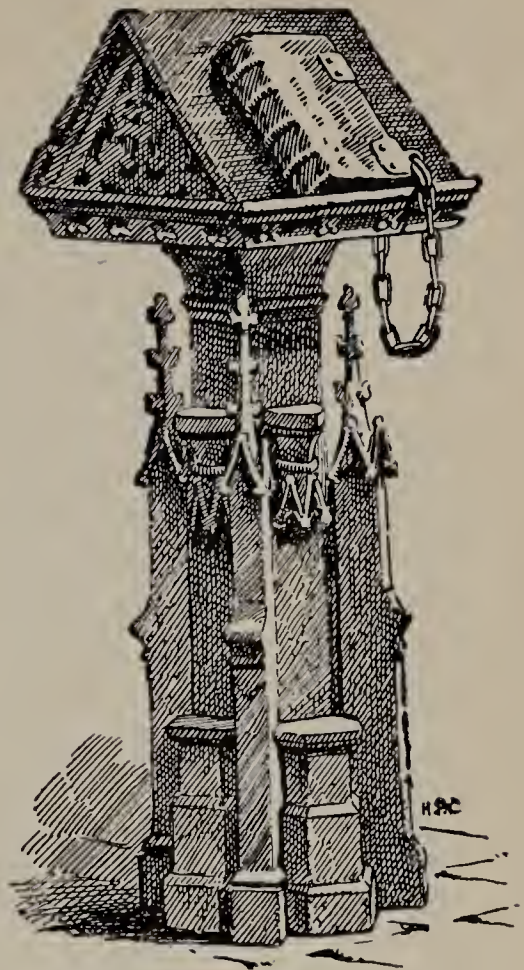
Cromwell was then appointed to take charge of the printing of a new translation, and in the year 1539 a copy of the English Bible was chained to the reading-desk of every parish church. From that time the Bible has never ceased to be printed and sold freely.

The Protestants now increased more rapidly in numbers, and in the short reign of Edward VI, Henry's son, the government was in the hands of Protestants. In the next reign, Queen Mary, Henry's elder daughter, who was a very strong Catholic, restored the Catholic religion; and now Protestants were terribly persecuted. By the time Elizabeth, Henry's younger daughter, came to the

throne, people were sick of cruelty and torture, and Elizabeth, while restoring Protestant reforms, tried to conciliate the Catholics.

She had both Catholics and Protestants among her favorites and counsellors. She was inclined to allow people to believe what they pleased, so long as they were good subjects and acknowledged her as the head of the Church. She was a tyrant like her father, and punished Protestants and Catholics alike if they offended her. Persecution was not entirely given up for many years, but England never again suffered horrors like those of Mary's reign.

Many of the people were Catholics at the opening of Elizabeth's reign, but from its end, up to the present time, England has been a Protestant country. Catholics and Protestants alike have at last learned to live in friendship and peace with one another, and in common loyalty to their country, though their beliefs are not the same.



Chained Bible

THE WARS OF RELIGION

The Huguenots

The great religious movement called the Reformation brought, not peace, but a sword, to all the nations north of the Alps. Everywhere the followers of the old and the new faith took opposite sides. Each side believed it was a sin and a crime to allow any kind of worship except that which they themselves thought right. The wars of religion, which filled most of the sixteenth century and the first half of the seventeenth century, were the most cruel and ruthless that were ever waged by the nations of Europe. As the struggle in France, Holland, and Germany has an indirect bearing on the history of the United States, it is necessary to outline briefly the course of events in each country.

The French Protestants were called Huguenots, a word of doubtful origin, but probably used, like that of Lollards in England, as a term of reproach. Many of the greatest nobles in the land accepted the new faith, and at the head of the movement were men of royal birth. The real leader of the Huguenots was the noble Admiral de Coligny.

Coligny was the Oliver Cromwell of the Protestant party. Like him he was a reserved, silent man, deeply religious, and devoted to the Protestant cause. Like him, too, he kept his soldiers under strict dis-

cipline, and allowed no rioting amongst them. In this way they became an army of "Ironsides," very unlike the other soldiers of the age. He was loved and honored by his own followers, and trusted even by his enemies. In an age when oaths and vows were but lightly regarded, he never broke faith with friend or foe.



Admiral de Coligny

The Catholic party was headed by the King of France, but here again the real leader was another, the Duke of Guise, an able and ambitious prince, who hoped to make his loyalty to the ancient faith a stepping-stone to the throne itself.

In 1558 Henry II of France died, leaving three sons, Francis, Charles, and Henry, each of whom in succession came to the throne. All of them were sickly in body and mind, and the government of the kingdom throughout their reigns was largely in the hands of their mother, Catharine de Medici, an Italian princess.

Francis II, who came to the throne in 1558, married Mary Queen of Scots, who, through her mother, was a niece of the Duke of Guise. This noble there-

fore, with the queen mother, became the real ruler of France, and he used his power mercilessly against the Protestants. Many were put to death, and many more were banished from the kingdom. Prince Condé was accused of plotting against the king, and was condemned to death. Only the sudden death of the king in 1560 prevented the sentence being carried out.

Charles IX, who succeeded, was a mere tool in the hands of his mother, Catharine. She was devoted to the Catholic cause, and determined to root out all heresy. The persecution of the Protestants became at length so great that they took up arms in self-defense. For over thirty years the struggle went on, with occasional breathing spaces, when both sides grew wearied of fighting.

During these years the center of France, one of the fairest and most fertile districts in the world, was converted into a wilderness, and its soil was drenched with the blood of its noblest citizens. Both sides seemed possessed with a mad lust for blood, and terrible deeds of cruelty, treachery, and savagery marked the progress of the war. One of the Catholic leaders boasted that the march of his army would be known by the bodies of heretics suspended from every tree along his route. One of the Protestant leaders showed himself no less bloodthirsty. Having captured 150 prisoners, he made them "walk the plank" from the battlements of his castle

into a ditch 150 feet below. Christianity has had, and still has, many curious champions.

Victory on the whole rested with the Catholic party. They were much the more numerous, and their leader, Guise, was one of the greatest generals of the day. But while besieging Orleans, a stronghold of the Huguenots, Guise was murdered. For a time thereafter success followed the Huguenot army, but in 1569 a great disaster overtook it at the battle of Jarnac.

The gallant Prince Condé was killed in this fight. Seeing the day was lost, he put himself at the head of a few followers, and shouting "See how Louis of Condé enters battle for God and fatherland!" he rushed into the thickest of the fight and was soon cut down. Sir Walter Raleigh and some English soldiers aided the Huguenots in this battle, but managed to win their way through the ranks of the enemy.

For a time it seemed as if the



Catharine de Medici

Huguenot cause was doomed, and even the great Coligny talked of giving up the struggle and taking refuge in England. Fresh courage and hope, however, were given them by the heroic Queen of Navarre. She rode into camp with her son Henry on one side, and Condé's son on the other. She addressed the soldiers with all the fire of a Boadicea. "For this sacred cause," she said, "I am prepared to give my dominions, my treasures, my life, and my son." Then before the whole army she made young Henry take a solemn oath, "on his honor, soul, and life," never to desert the cause.

This youth of fifteen, who was in the long run to carry his party to victory, had been brought up by his mother with a view to the great part she believed he would be called upon to play. From his earliest boyhood he had led the hardy, active life of a mountaineer in the hill country of Navarre, on the Pyrenees. Winter and summer he went about bare-headed and barefooted, sharing in the simple sports and pastimes of his peasant companions. The frank manners and the joyous nature that this open-air life gave him were to make him in after years the most beloved of the French kings.

After another year of war Charles, the reigning king, grew weary of the struggle, and, in spite of protests from the queen mother and the Pope, offered freedom of worship to the Huguenots. As a pledge of good faith he allowed them to garrison

with Protestant troops four fortified towns, of which La Rochelle was one.

In the hope of making the peace more lasting, a marriage was arranged between the young Prince Henry of Navarre and Margaret, sister of the King of France. The Huguenots were greatly delighted with the turn of events, and prepared to celebrate the occasion in a worthy fashion. They flocked to Paris in great numbers, and were received with marked favor by Charles. The gallant bearing of the noble Coligny quite won the heart of the young king. He called him "my father," gave him back all the offices which had been taken from him, and made him his adviser in all affairs of State.

All this time Catharine and the Guises were watching with increasing anger the honors showered on their hated foes. They feared especially the increasing influence of Coligny over the king, and resolved to get rid of him. One day as Coligny was passing down the street an assassin, believed to have been hired by Catharine, fired upon him, and wounded him severely in the arm. The king was furious when he heard of it, and vowed that he would punish those responsible for the crime, no matter how noble they might be.

The poor king, however, was but a child in the hands of his strong-willed mother. That same night she called Charles to a secret council, and told him of a Huguenot plot to murder himself and his

brother and place Henry of Navarre on the throne. The unhappy monarch believed the story, and was easily persuaded that the only course left to him was to massacre all the Protestants in the country.

In the early morning of St. Bartholomew's Day (Sunday, August 24, 1572) the great bell of the city pealed out the signal for the slaughter to begin. Armed men with white crosses on their caps rushed into the streets, and made for the houses where the Huguenots were known to be. They fell upon them, unarmed and in many cases asleep, and slaughtered men, women, and children without mercy. Coligny and thousands of other Protestants fell in this savage butchery.

Orders had been sent throughout the country for a similar massacre. Many cities followed the example of Paris, so that their streets ran with blood. But in several the governors refused to obey the order. The reply of the Governor of Bayonne is worth recording. "In this city," he wrote, "there are plenty good citizens and brave soldiers, but there are no assassins." Altogether over 10,000 persons are said to have perished on this fatal day.

For the moment it seemed that the Protestant cause was doomed, but again Henry of Navarre raised their drooping spirits. He and the young Prince Condé were the only Huguenots of note in Paris who escaped massacre, Charles having given strict orders that they were not to be touched.



THE ENTRY OF HENRY IV INTO PARIS

From the painting by Baron Gérard in the Louvre, Paris

Henry remained on at Court for some time, going to Mass with others. But at the first opportunity he made his escape, and hastened to the Huguenot camp at La Rochelle. Here he was received with open arms, and the Huguenots prepared to renew the struggle.

Charles IX died in 1574, two years after the massacre. Remorse for the massacre of St. Bartholomew filled his last days with agony. Asleep and awake he was haunted by the memories of that dreadful night, and in his ears, he said, there rang the shrieks of the women and children he had sent to their doom.

The White Plumes of Navarre

Charles IX was succeeded by his brother, Henry III. There were at this time three Henrys in France, each with a strong following. There was Henry of Valois, King of France, a weak and worthless man, who cared more for his own pleasures than for any form of religion; there was Henry of Navarre, the nearest heir to the French throne, and the leader of the Huguenots; and there was Henry of Guise, the hero of the people of Paris, and the champion of the Catholic faith. He was a son of the Duke of Guise who was assassinated at Orleans. He had all the ability and ambition of his father, and was suspected of aiming at the throne itself.



Henry IV of France

Henry III soon lost the support of the extreme Catholics by granting certain liberties to the Protestants. The former banded themselves together into the Holy Catholic League, sworn to preserve the ancient faith, and to make no terms or conditions with the Huguenots.

Henry of Guise, who was their leader, made a secret treaty with Philip of Spain, who promised to give 50,000 crowns a month to enable him to carry on the war against Henry of Navarre.

Henry III regarded with growing fear the popularity of the ambitious Guise. He ordered him to remain at his country seat, and not enter Paris without his consent. But the haughty noble rode into the city with only seven followers. No sooner was his arrival known than the whole of Paris flocked to welcome him. Accompanied by an immense throng, he presented himself before the king in his palace at the Louvre.

Henry III, terrified by the shouts from the mob in favor of Guise and against himself, received him

with fair words, and consulted him on affairs of state. Soon afterwards Henry III fled from Paris and took refuge in the royal castle at Blois. Thither he summoned the Duke of Guise on pretense of coming to an understanding with him. Guise, though warned that treachery was intended by the king, boldly entered the castle. At once the king's guards fell upon him and hacked him in pieces.

This shameful deed roused against Henry the anger of the Catholic League. He had to flee from the royal palace, and to take refuge in the camp of Henry of Navarre. The two Henrys advanced on Paris, the stronghold of the League. While besieging that city, Henry III was murdered in 1588 by a half-mad monk in revenge for the murder of Guise, the champion of the Church. With his death came to an end the House of Valois, which had given kings to France for over 250 years.

Before dying, Henry III named Henry of Navarre, the first of the House of Bourbon, as his successor. But Catholic France would have no heretic as king, and the struggle went on more fiercely than before. The Catholic League sought help from Spain, and Henry IV received help from England and the Protestant princes of Germany.

After many battles, in which victory rested now with one side now with the other, the two armies met at Ivry, near Paris, in 1590. Henry IV was almost at the end of his resources, and he resolved

“ to stake all on one last throw of the dice.” Before the battle began he addressed his soldiers, telling them that in this fight he was going to conquer or to die. “ Here is your king,” he said, “ there is the enemy. Should your standards fall, follow my white plumes. You will see them ever in the thickest of the fight.” With these words he put on his helmet, made conspicuous by its great white feathers, and gave the signal for battle.

Hurrah! the foes are moving. Hark to the mingled din
Of fife, and steed, and trump, and drum, and roaring
culverin.

The fiery Duke is pricking fast across Saint André's plain,
With all the hireling chivalry of Guelders and Almayne.
Now by the lips of those ye love, fair gentlemen of France,
Charge for the golden lilies, — upon them with the lance.

A thousand spurs are striking deep, a thousand spears in
rest,

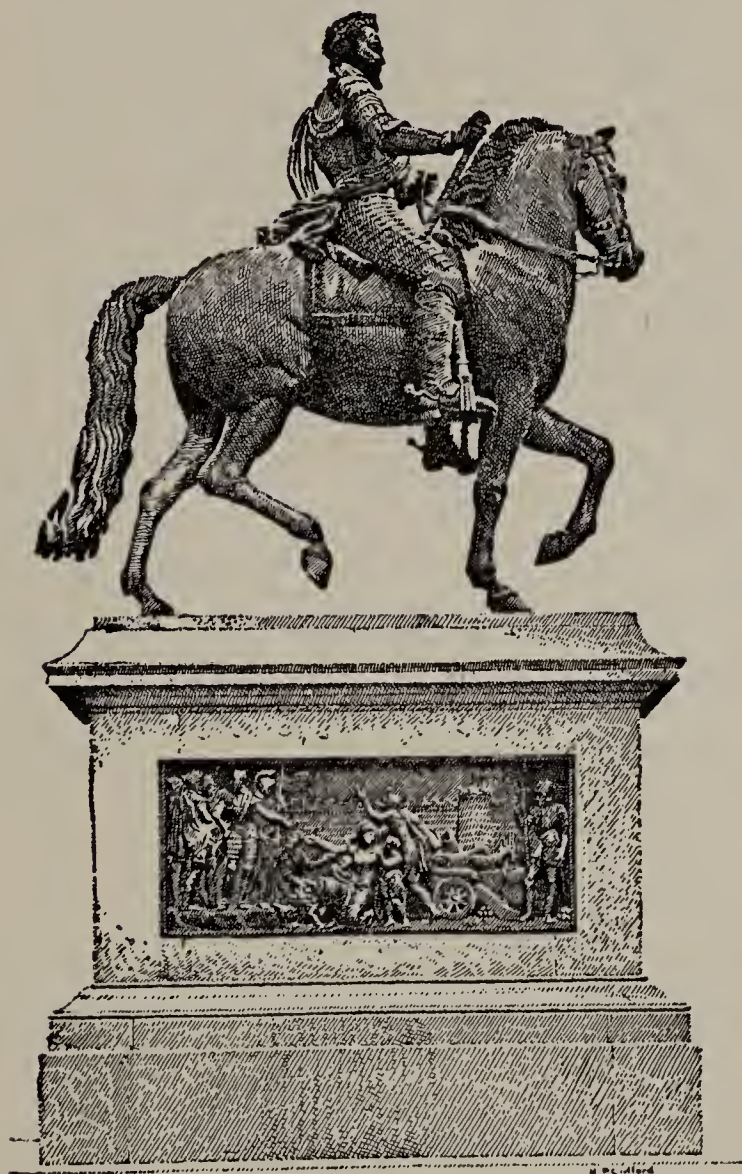
A thousand knights are pressing close behind the snow-
white crest;

And in they burst, and on they rushed, while, like a guid-
ing star,

Amidst the thickest carnage blazed the helmet of Navarre.

The Huguenots advanced to the charge singing the battle psalm which has so often heralded victory to the armies of the Reformed Church, “ Let God arise and let His enemies be scattered ”. In this fight the army of the League was not merely defeated, it was destroyed.

Paris, however, still refused to surrender, and endured the worst extremes of famine rather than open its gates to a heretic. At last Henry saw that



Statue of Henry IV at Paris

there would be no lasting peace in France under a Protestant king as long as the great majority of the people were Catholics. So, acting upon the advice of his best friends, he professed publicly his belief in the Catholic faith in order to bring peace

to his distracted country. Paris at once opened its gates, and Henry IV entered the city amid the cheers of the people.

One of Henry's first acts was to issue the Edict of Nantes, which gave complete freedom of worship to everyone in the land. Throughout the rest of his reign he sought earnestly to make France once more a happy and prosperous land. So well did he succeed that in a few years France began to take the place of Spain as the leading nation in Europe, while the king himself became the idol of the people.

Unhappily his life was cut short in 1610 by a fanatic, who stabbed him in the streets of Paris. And so the three Henrys who had been such rivals in life came to the same untimely and violent end.

SIR THOMAS MORE

More's Life

Thomas More was the son of a lawyer, and was born in the year 1478. After he left school, the boy became a page in the service of the Archbishop of Canterbury, Henry VII's great minister, Cardinal Morton. The cardinal was pleased with the boy's wit and intelligence, and often said to the nobles who dined at his table: "This child here waiting at the table, whosoever shall live to see it, will prove a marvelous man".

After studying at Oxford, More became a student of law and a Member of Parliament. When Henry VIII came to the throne, More soon won favor with him, and was taken into his service, and made a knight. His manners and conversation were so attractive that the king would often send for him after supper, and talk and joke with him.

This kept him so much at Court, that at last he had great difficulty in getting leave to go home and see his wife and children. So he began to be less talkative and merry, and put on such serious airs, and smiled so seldom, that the king began to think him a dull companion, and did not send for him quite so often. Thus he managed to get a little liberty.

The home life of More was simple and charming.

He was very fond of his three little girls, and taught them carefully, trying to win their interest by showing them all sorts of curious things that he had collected.

“He was as fond of their pets and games as the children themselves, and would take grave scholars and statesmen into the garden to see his girls’ rabbit-hutches, or to watch the gambols of their favorite monkey.” When away from home, he would write amusing verses for his little ones to read, and he was always thinking about their happiness.

No one was better pleased than More when the young king gave up his plans for war with France. He still enjoyed great favor with Henry. Once the



Sir Thomas More. (When a prisoner in the Tower he let his beard grow)

king paid an unexpected visit to his house at Chelsea, “and after dinner, in a fair garden of his, he walked with him by the space of an hour, holding his arm about his neck.”

“As soon as his grace was

gone," says More's son-in-law, "I, rejoicing, told Sir Thomas More how happy he was, whom the king had so familiarly entertained, as I have never seen him do to any before, except Cardinal Wolsey, whom I saw his grace once walk with arm in arm."

More replied: "I find his grace my very good lord indeed, and I do believe he doth as singularly favor me as any subject within his realm. Howbeit I may tell thee, I have no cause to be proud thereof. For if my head would win him a castle in France, it should not fail to go."

When the question of putting away Queen Katharine arose, More, who was now Lord Chancellor, felt that he could not agree with Henry, and accordingly he gave up his office.

There never lived a more upright judge than More was. He refused to place his relatives in important positions, unless they were the men best fitted for them. It was impossible to bribe him, as some judges in those days were bribed. Once a gilt cup was given him by a lady as a New Year's present. He courteously drank her health in it, then returned it as a present to her husband.

A rich widow in whose favor he had given a judgment, sent him £40 inside a pair of gloves. "Since it were against good manners to forsake a gentlewoman's New Year's gift," he said, "I am content to receive your gloves, but as for your money I utterly refuse."

More's Death

After his retirement from office, More lived quietly with his family at Chelsea. But Henry was a king who never forgave anyone who opposed him. When the Act was passed which required the clergy and others to acknowledge that the king's first marriage was unlawful, More refused to take the oath; in spite of warnings from his friends.

He was bidden to go to the Archbishop's palace at Lambeth and there take the oath. As he went down the Thames in his boat, he sat silent for a while. Then he turned and said to his son-in-law: "I thank our Lord the field is won". By which he meant that he had conquered the temptation to give way, and would obey his conscience to the end.

Nothing could make him change his mind, and he was sent a prisoner to the Tower. Some time after this an Act was passed proclaiming Henry head of the Church, and declaring that anyone who denied it was a traitor. Several clergymen were executed for refusing to acknowledge Henry's headship, and from the window of his cell More saw them on their way to the block. Yet he spoke cheerfully to his daughter, who was visiting him, though he knew that the same fate would be his.

When his wife came to see him, and said that he might, if he pleased, enjoy his house, his library, his books and gallery, his gardens and orchards and

live merrily with his family, instead of lying in a filthy prison among mice and rats, he said: "Tell me, is not this house as nigh heaven as mine own?"

By and by it was reported to the Parliament that the prisoner had spoken treasonable words; and, being brought to trial in Westminster Hall, this noble man was condemned to death, after he had defended himself in a splendid speech. A week afterwards, he was led from the Tower to the place of execution.

The scaffold shook with his weight as he mounted the steps. He turned and said cheerfully to the officer: "I pray you, I pray you, Mr. Lieutenant, see me safe up, and for my coming down let me shift for myself."

Then kneeling down, he said a short prayer. After which he rose, and turning to the headsman, he smiled, and said: "Pluck up



Beauchamp Tower and Place of Execution, Tower of London

thy spirits, man, and be not afraid to do thine office. Take care that you do not aim awry, for my neck is very short."

He placed his head calmly on the block, but raised it again to move his beard out of the path of the axe. "Pity that should be cut," he said, "that has committed no treason."

"So passed Sir Thomas More out of this world to God upon the very same day in which himself had most desired." When the news was told to the Emperor, he said: "We would rather have lost the best city of our dominions than have lost such a worthy counsellor".

LADY JANE GREY

The Question of the Succession

The list of the sovereigns of England does not contain the name of Queen Jane; yet, for twelve days, Queen Jane was sovereign, though only in name. She is best known as Lady Jane Grey; and to understand her unhappy story, we must return to the reign of Henry VIII.

Not three years had passed after Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn, before the tyrant king was tired of her, and had fallen in love with one of her maids of honor, Lady Jane Seymour. He found out, or pretended to find out, that Anne was not a faithful wife; and though she declared her innocence, she was beheaded.

The very next day Henry married his third wife, Jane Seymour. To his great delight, she became the mother of a prince, who was named Edward; but the queen died only a week after his birth. Henry had now three children, Mary, Elizabeth, and Edward; and though he married three more wives, no more children were born to him.

Three years before his death, Henry made a will in which he settled the succession to the Crown. Parliament accepted his arrangement, and passed an Act confirming it.



King Edward's School and Alms Houses, Stratford-on-Avon

By this Act, when Henry died the Crown was to pass first to Edward, then to Mary if Edward left no child, and then to Elizabeth if Mary died childless. If all three left no children, the next heirs were declared to be the descendants of Henry's sister, Mary, who had married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

At Henry's death, therefore, his son became King Edward VI. As he was only ten years old, it was decided that the kingdom should be governed for him until he reached the age of eighteen. The poor boy did not live so long; he was always delicate, and he worked so hard to make himself fit to rule

his kingdom that his health became worse and worse.

He was a quiet, studious lad, very anxious to do what was right; and he had been brought up as a strict Protestant. His reign is chiefly memorable for the drawing up of the Book of Common Prayer, which, slightly altered, is still in use; and for the foundation of sixteen Grammar Schools, in various parts of the country.

In the sixth year of his reign, Edward became so ill, that it was clear he could not live long; and the Duke of Northumberland, the little king's chief councillor, resolved to make himself all-powerful in the land. He told the dying king that if Henry's will were carried out, and Mary became queen, she, being a Roman Catholic, would restore the power of the Pope in England, and bring back again the religion which Edward hated.

He also said that Elizabeth had no right to the Crown, because her mother, Anne Boleyn, had not been legally Henry's wife. After Elizabeth, the next heirs, by Henry's will, were the grandchildren of his sister, the Duchess of Suffolk; and the eldest of these, Lady Jane Grey, had just been married to Northumberland's son, Lord Guilford Dudley.



Edward VI
(after Holbein)

Northumberland now persuaded Edward to make a will, appointing the Lady Jane his heir, and called upon the great peers, Cranmer the Archbishop, with some bishops and the chief State officials, to sign it. In vain it was pointed out that Parliament alone could settle the succession to the throne; Northumberland violently demanded their assent to his scheme, and they were afraid to refuse.

Little more than a fortnight later, the young king died, and the most important men in the country had promised to make Lady Jane Grey queen.

The Fate of Lady Jane

The Lady Jane was a young girl of sixteen years, and knew nothing of her father-in-law's designs. She had been carefully brought up as a Protestant. She was very bright and intelligent, and an excellent scholar, knowing Latin and Greek, in addition to Italian and French. Above all, her character was pure and beautiful.

When Northumberland sent for her, and told her that Edward was dead, and that she was to be queen, she burst into tears. Edward had been her playfellow and fellow pupil; she was distressed at his death, and also at her own unfitness to succeed to his great office. She at first refused the Crown, and only accepted it after much persuasion by Northumberland, by her husband, and by her own parents.

She was led, richly dressed, through the streets of London, and proclaimed queen at the Tower; but no one raised a cheer for her except her own heralds. One apprentice boy ventured to say that Mary should be queen and not Lady Jane, and he was nailed by the ears to the pillory. The boy had only said what many others in the kingdom were feeling.

Meanwhile a swift messenger had galloped off to tell Mary what had happened. Northumberland sent a party of men to seize her, but when they reached the house where she had been staying, she had escaped.

Nobles and gentlemen now flocked to Mary from all parts, and she gained the support of many who had been forced to sign Edward's will in favor of Lady Jane. Northumberland raised an army, and marched out of London to fight for Queen Jane; but even his own men deserted, and went over to Mary.

While he was absent, Mary was proclaimed queen in London: thousands of voices cried, "God save the Queen!" bells pealed, and bonfires blazed. Most of the people were for the rightful queen; they detested Northumberland for his pride and his bad government; large numbers of them were Catholics, and wished for a Catholic queen.

Northumberland and many of his friends were arrested and thrown into the Tower, and Mary rode into London in triumph, amid the thunder of can-

non and the pealing of bells. The prisoners were tried and condemned for treason, and Northumberland and two others were executed; but Mary spared Lady Jane, whom she knew to be innocent. She and her young husband were sent to the Tower; but they suffered no harsh treatment, and at first enjoyed some liberty within the walls.

Unhappily, Lady Jane soon had to suffer for the crimes of others. When Mary proposed to marry Philip, the King of Spain, many of her subjects were deeply offended. Sir Thomas Wyatt, a brave and gifted man, raised the men of Kent in rebellion, and led them towards London, declaring that they would not have a Spaniard as their king.

Mary was at first in great danger of losing her



Lady Jane Grey

Crown; but she won the Londoners to her side by a spirited speech. When the rebels arrived at London Bridge, hoping to gain possession of the city, they found the gate shut and the drawbridge raised against them.

Hastening to Kingston-on-Thames, Wyatt crossed the river

She sprang lightly up to the steps of the scaffold, and told the people who crowded round that she had broken the law in accepting the Crown; but that she had meant no wrong, and the guilt was not hers. Then she laid her head gently on the block, and, at one stroke of the axe, the good, beautiful girl was dead.

QUEEN ELIZABETH

Elizabeth and Mary

During the long reign of Queen Elizabeth, England rose to a higher pitch of greatness and importance than it had ever before reached. It owed much to great statesmen and soldiers and sailors, but also a very great deal to the queen herself. If Elizabeth had been a woman of a different character, the position of England to-day might be much lower among the nations of the world.

Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn. When she was a child of less than three years, her mother was beheaded, and the little girl's life was not a very happy one. During the reign of her brother Edward VI, Elizabeth lived at various manor-houses, and had for her teacher a wise tutor named Roger Ascham.

While her sister Mary was queen, Elizabeth was in some danger of losing her life. Mary, who was the daughter of Henry's first queen, Katharine, was a strong Roman Catholic, and was eager to make the Pope again head of the Church, and prevent the growth of the Protestant religion in England. Elizabeth was thought to be a Protestant, like her mother, and only her prudence prevented her from suffering for her religion, as many hundreds of Protestants suffered during Mary's reign.



Queen Elizabeth

Now when Mary died, England was in a sad condition. Mary and her counsellors had so cruelly treated people who did not agree with them in religion, that the nation was sick of the whole matter.

She had gone to war with France, too, to please her husband, Philip of Spain; and the English had been beaten, and had lost Calais, which had belonged to them for more than two hundred years. Englishmen disliked the thought of being beaten by the French, and the loss of Calais made

Mary so unpopular, that the nation did not mourn at her death.

Thus the people were ready to give a hearty welcome to their new queen, the Princess Elizabeth. She had behaved so prudently during the five years of her sister's reign, that nobody quite knew what sort of queen she would be, and so both the Catholics and the Protestants thought that they might be favored by her.



QUEEN ELIZABETH GOING ON BOARD THE *GOLDEN HIND*

From the painting by Frank Brangwyn, A.R.A., in Lloyd's Registry, London

Elizabeth's Character

When she became queen, Elizabeth was twenty-five years old. She had a queenly figure, a pleasing if not a beautiful face, and a mind that had been well trained. She was "a bold horsewoman, a good shot, a graceful dancer, a skilled musician, and an accomplished scholar". She could read Greek and Latin, and speak Italian and French, and she keenly enjoyed the poems and plays which the splendid writers of her time produced.

She had good health, and lived on very simple food. She was careful of money; indeed, she was miserly, and would not allow money to be spent even when it was needed for the defense of the country.

But she was anxious to make the people fond of her, and she did not wish heavy taxes to be put upon them. On one occasion she returned part of the money which the House of Commons had ordered to be collected for her.

Fear was unknown to her. There were many people who would have liked to kill her, but she took no care for her own safety, and allowed some of her most dangerous enemies to come freely to her court. She hated war, and kept out of it as much as she possibly could.

Besides these good qualities she had some bad ones. Though sparing in some things, she spent

large sums of money on dress, and she loved show. She was deceitful, and fond of trickery, rather than of straightforward dealing. She was vain and proud, and sometimes gave way to furious bursts of anger, even going so far as to box the ears of one of her councillors when he displeased her.

Her ideas of what was honest and fair were very strange. Once a number of Spanish ships, carrying money to Philip's governor in the Low Countries, came into English ports to escape the pirates who sailed the English Channel. Philip had borrowed the money from Italian money-lenders, but Elizabeth ordered it to be seized and brought to her. She would borrow it herself, she said.

One of her worst faults was her want of gratitude to the men who served her well. She did not dismiss or put to death her ministers for slight faults, as her father Henry had done; on the contrary, she kept the same ministers during the greater part of her reign. But she was often ungenerous in her treatment of them. Sir Francis Walsingham, a man of great ability, and one to whom Elizabeth owed her life and who spent his whole fortune in her service, died so poor that he had to be buried at night to save expense.

England Under Elizabeth

Englishmen in the reign of Elizabeth lived very differently from Englishmen of to-day. Their

houses were not well built, but they ate good, wholesome food; indeed, a Spaniard in writing about their ways said: "These Englishmen have their houses of sticks and dirt, but they fare commonly as well as the king".

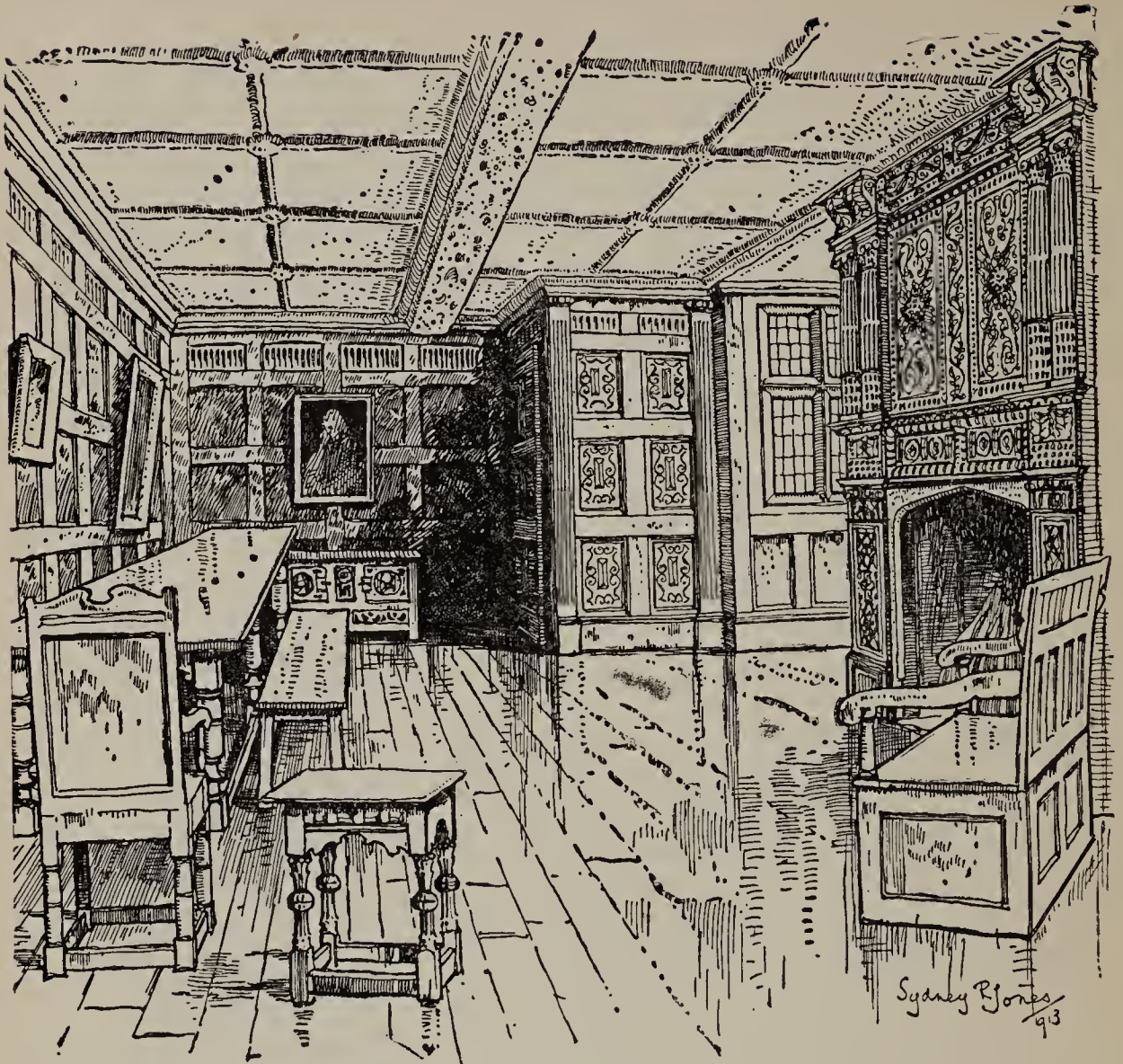
People got up at four o'clock in the morning all the year round. At five o'clock they had breakfast of bread and beef and beer, and then the laborers went to work, and the gentlemen to pleasure or business.

Food was cheap: beef and pork could be bought for a halfpenny a pound, a chicken for a penny, and the best pig or goose in a country market for fourpence. For a penny, a working man could buy as much as would now cost him a shilling; but money was scarcer and wages were lower than in our days.

The houses of the poor were made "of sticks and dirt", as the Spanish writer said; but buildings were being greatly improved. Instead of holes



Nobleman, time of Queen
Elizabeth



A Room furnished and decorated in the Elizabethan Style

in the roof through which the smoke from the fires passed out, chimneys were built.

Instead of having mere holes in the walls, or small windows of thin horn, the people now began to have larger windows of glass. Glass then cost a good deal of money, and some people grumbled at the expense of the new windows.

Furniture began to be improved. Up to this time beds like ours were almost unknown. People used

to sleep on pallets of straw, and rest their heads on bags of chaff or logs of wood. But now feather and wool beds came into use. The floors, instead of being strewn with rushes, in which bones and waste food and filth of all kinds collected, were now covered with carpets.

Nowadays there is not a very great difference between the dress of rich and poor. But in Elizabeth's time, the rich nobles spent untold wealth upon their dress. The queen set the example, and her courtiers seemed to try to outdo one another in the splendor of their clothing.

They wore silks and velvets of the most gaudy colors, and the lace they put on their cuffs and about their necks often cost a fortune. The poorer classes dressed in plain garments of woolen cloth and leather.

Every man was bound by law to keep arms in his house, according to the amount of his property. A man whose land was worth £15 a year had to keep a hauberk, a helmet, a sword, a dagger, and a horse. A man whose land was worth only £2 a year kept a sword, a bow and arrows, and a dagger.

Every man above fifteen years of age was bound to have bow and arrows, so that all the men could be called out as soldiers if need arose. Shooting with bow and arrows was a favorite exercise and amusement.

Every village had its pair of archery butts, " and



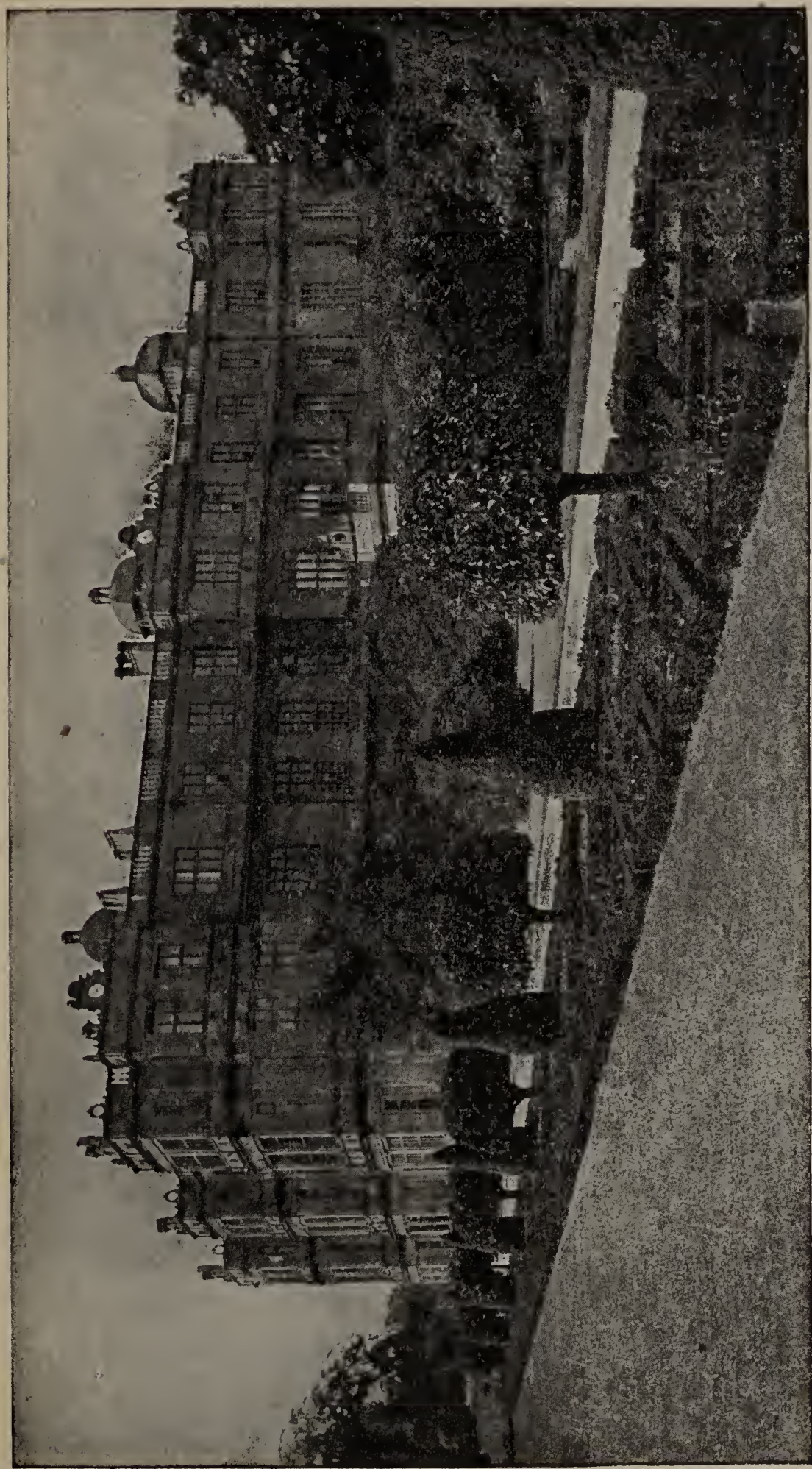
Countrywoman, time
of Queen Elizabeth

on Sundays and holidays all able-bodied men were required to appear in the field, to employe their leisure hours as valiant Englishmen ought to do''. Young men of the upper classes amused themselves with sword and lance exercises, and with practice in the use of firearms.

Field sports were also common, such as fishing, shooting, and hunting. The forests were kept for the sake of the rich, and poor men were forbidden by law to hunt in them. But peasants often risked the danger for the sake of the delight, and it is said of Shakespeare that in his young days he made one of a deer-stealing gang.

The trade of the country was rapidly growing in extent and importance. New money was issued to take the place of the old coinage which was bad and unequal. A large number of the people were employed in growing crops and in pasturing sheep — occupations of far more importance then than they are in England now.

The wool got from the sheep had formerly been sent across to Flanders to be woven into cloth, and to Florence to be dyed; but now Englishmen had



LONGLEAT HOUSE, WILTSHIRE, FROM THE EAST WALK

A magnificent architectural production of Elizabeth's reign, built in the mixed Italian and English style.
It is now the seat of the Marquis of Bath.

learned to weave it and dye it themselves. Manufactures of woollen and iron goods now greatly increased, and Manchester and Sheffield were rising towns.

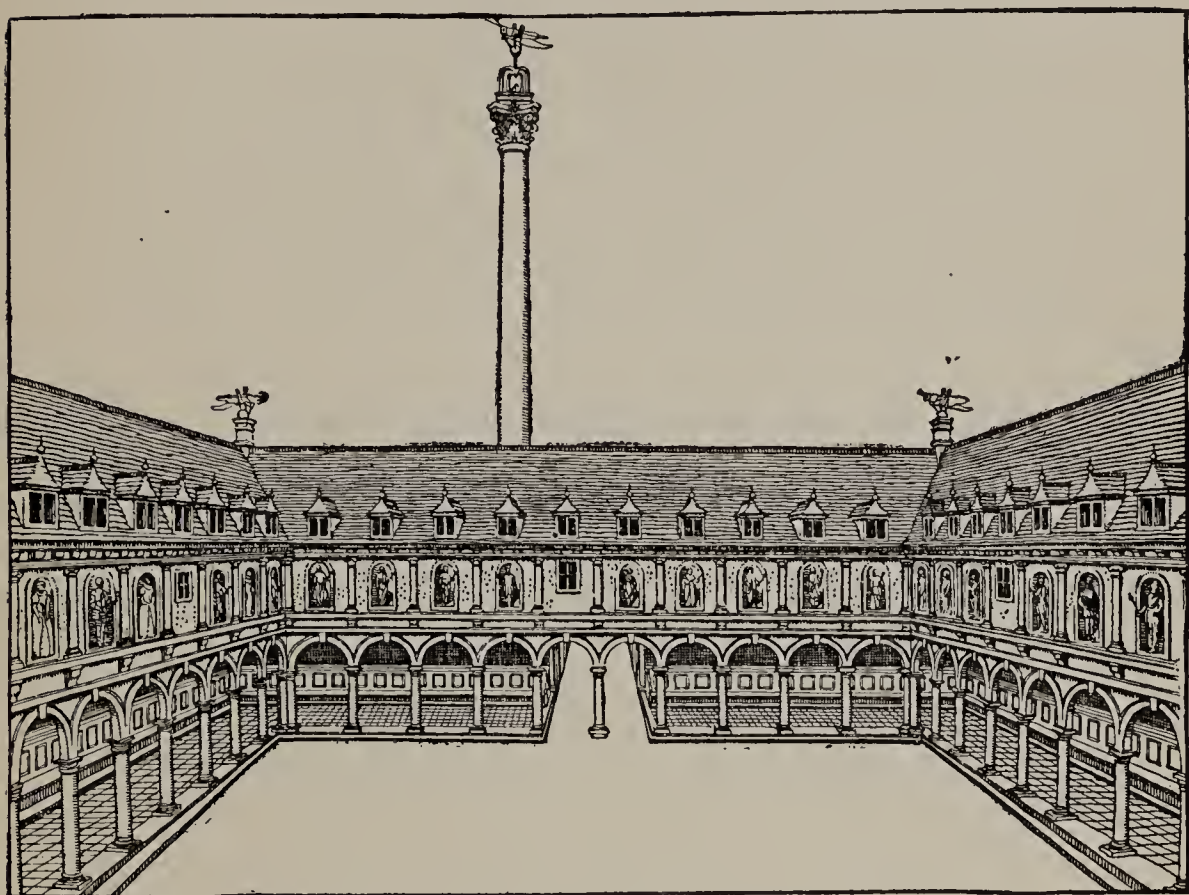
The daring of English seamen was opening up new markets for English goods abroad, and was bringing goods from other lands to England. Tobacco, mahogany, maize, and potatoes were first known in England in this reign, and with new materials new trades and occupations arose.

In one matter particularly Elizabeth showed her good sense. It was the custom to reward favorites with the grant of monopolies, that is, the sole right to trade in certain articles. Thus Sir Walter Raleigh had the sole right to export woollen broadcloth for a certain length of time; also, he had the right to demand a fee from every dealer in wine.

Now this of course made such articles dearer than they would otherwise have been, and people complained of the high prices they had to pay. When the House of Commons objected to the monopolies, Elizabeth admitted the justice of the complaints, and took away a number of the monopolies from the courtiers to whom they had been given.

Elizabeth's reign is famous for the beginning of the Poor Laws. Though most people were then able to live in comfort, there was a large number of poor folks. The spread of sheep-farming and the enclosure of the common lands had driven many

of the peasantry to the towns in search of a living. Men who were maimed in war, and men who were too old and feeble to work, or who could not get work, had either to beg or to starve.



The Inner Court of the First Royal Exchange. Opened by Queen Elizabeth in 1570

There were severe laws against beggars who were well and strong, but too lazy to work, and hundreds of such men were caught and hanged every year. But that did not help those who were willing but unable to work.

So at last laws were made by which the people of every district were bound to look after their own poor and old people, and to provide homes

and food for them. Those who could work were made to do so; and thus great numbers of idle men, instead of being left to become robbers and murderers, were made harmless and useful members of society.

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

Mary and Darnley

A fair ship was leaving the coast of France, with sails set for the north. On the deck stood a young lady, whose lovely face was wet with tears as she leaned over the bulwark and gazed at the shores fading from her sight.

She was rich, beautiful, and a queen; yet she was sad, and her maidens could not comfort her. "Adieu, fair land of France, adieu," she murmured: "I shall never see thee again."

The young queen was Mary Stuart, daughter of James V of Scotland, and granddaughter of that brave, foolish James IV who met his death at Flodden. Her father died when she was but six days old, and thus she was a queen almost from her birth.

At the age of five years she was sent away to France. Her mother was a French princess, and sent her daughter to her own country, in order to prevent a marriage between the girl and Edward VI of England. For though Mary was so young, English statesmen were planning to unite the Crowns of England and Scotland, by arranging that she should marry Edward as soon as she was old enough.

At the gay Court of France, Mary grew up into



Mary Queen of Scots

a beautiful young woman. When she was sixteen she was married to the Dauphin Francis, the eldest son of the French king. Within a year of her marriage her husband became King of France by the death of his father, and Mary was then queen both of Scotland and of France.

But Francis had reigned only eighteen months when he died, and his young queen was a widow. She had already lost her mother, who had been ruling Scotland for her. The Scots now, being without a ruler, sent to France asking Mary to return to her own land.

Why was she so sad as she sailed away to her own kingdom? It was because France seemed to be her true home, and she was distressed at the thought of the difficulties which awaited her in Scotland. She had spent so many years in France that she loved that sunny land, and she knew nothing that was pleasant of the bleak, bare country in the north.

Life in France was bright and gay, and the French were a polite and pleasant people; while Scotsmen were rough and plain-spoken, and were at this time under the influence of the severe teaching of the Reformers, led by the stern John Knox.

For years the government of Scotland had been very unsettled. While Mary's mother, who was a Catholic, was regent, she had kept her power mainly by the aid of French troops. At last the Reformers grew strong enough, by England's help, to drive the French from the country; and the chief power then fell into the hands of a number of nobles, who called themselves the "lords of the congregation".

Thus Mary, as the Catholic queen of a sternly Protestant people, saw many difficulties before her. But she was young, and beautiful, and clever; many Scotsmen were proud of their lovely queen, and if she had been careful and prudent, she might have had a prosperous and happy reign.

For some years after her return, Mary had fair success in her dealings with her subjects. Then she gave great offense to many of her lords by her marriage with Henry, Lord Darnley, who was a Catholic like herself. Darnley was a handsome young man of nineteen, but foolish, ignorant, and of bad character.

Mary soon lost her love for her worthless husband, and allowed neither him nor his friends to have any power in the government. They were

enraged at this, especially when they found that Mary, instead of asking their advice, often consulted her secretary, an accomplished Italian gentleman named David Rizzio.

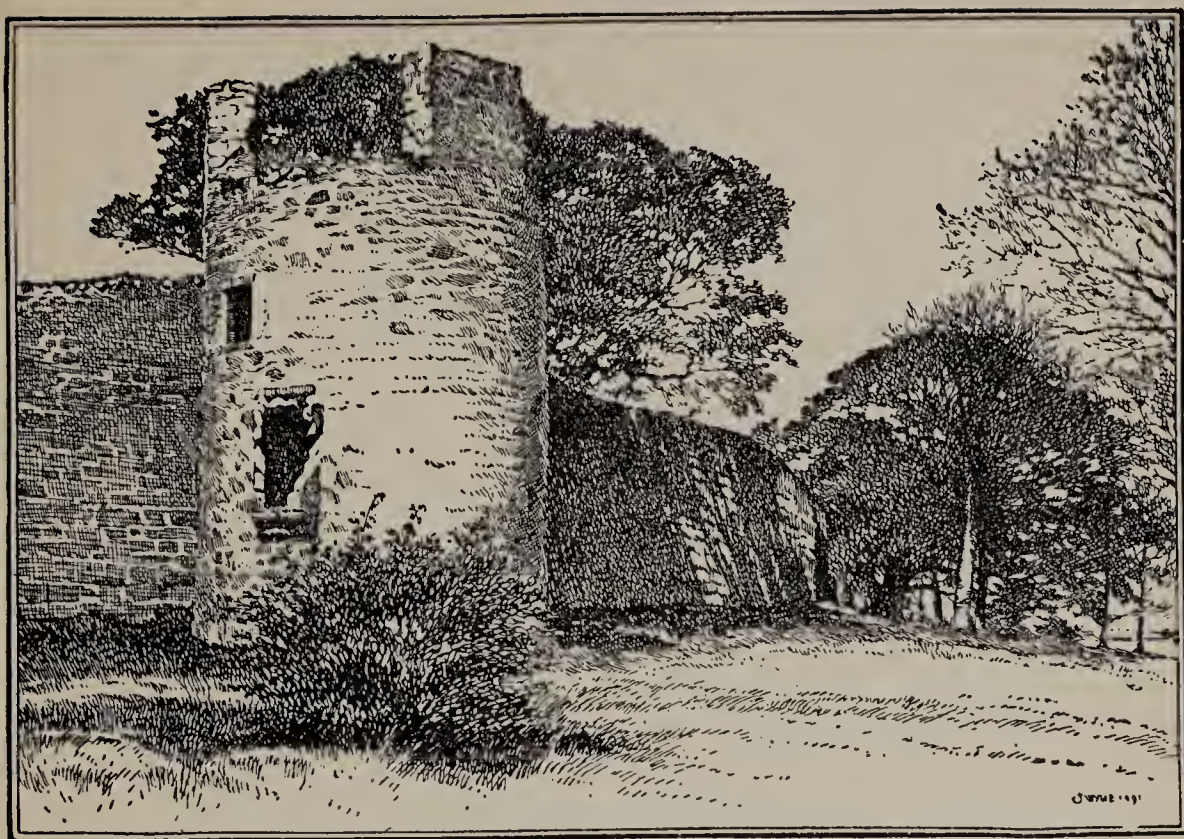
The Scottish lords hated the foreigner upon whom Mary bestowed her confidence and favor. One evening Darnley, with four friends, burst into the room where Rizzio was sitting with the queen, stabbed him as he clung to her dress for protection, and then dragged him into an anteroom, where they hacked him to death. Mary's dislike of her husband was now turned to hatred.

Mary's Misfortunes

Not long after the murder of Rizzio, Darnley fell sick, and was lodged in a solitary house near Edinburgh. Mary nursed him there with every appearance of tenderness, but one night she left him alone with one page, and went to the palace of Holyrood.

Just before the dawn of the next day a tremendous explosion startled the city. Hastening in the direction of the sound, the citizens found that Darnley's house had been blown up and burned to ashes, and in the garden they found the dead bodies of Darnley and his page.

People said that this terrible deed had been contrived by Lord Bothwell, a nobleman of whom Mary had grown very fond. When, a few weeks after-



Lochleven Castle

wards, Bothwell seized the queen as she was out riding, carried her off to Dunbar, and then married her, the belief grew that Mary and Bothwell had planned the murder of Darnley together.

The whole nation was shocked and indignant. The Protestant lords flew to arms, while Bothwell got together a force to oppose them. The hostile armies met at Carberry Hill, near Edinburgh, but Mary's troops deserted in such large numbers that to fight was impossible.

Mary was now compelled to surrender to the lords; while Bothwell, galloping to Dunbar with a few followers, afterwards escaped to Denmark, where he died in prison. The lords carried Mary

to Edinburgh, and then imprisoned her in Lochleven Castle, which stood on an island in the midst of a lake.

At Lochleven, Mary was forced to resign her Crown to her son James, a baby twelve months old, and to appoint her half-brother, the Earl of Moray, regent.

After nearly a year's imprisonment, Mary escaped in a daring way. A page-boy managed to take the keys of the castle from beside the plate of the governor as he sat at supper, and ran off with them unperceived.

When Mary knew this, she hurried down the stairs. Reaching the outer gate, she unlocked it, and passed through with one or two companions; then locked it behind her, and sprang into a little boat that lay at the edge of the lake.

They rowed rapidly across to the opposite shore, where a number of lords and other friends were waiting on horseback, and at once galloped off in safety. A large number of nobles, with bands of armed retainers, joined Mary. When the Earl of Moray heard of the queen's wonderful escape, he speedily raised an army in defense of young King James. He met the queen's forces two miles south of Glasgow.

After a battle lasting only three-quarters of an hour, and in which only three hundred men were killed, the queen's army was entirely defeated.

Mary had watched the fight from a hill half a mile away. When she saw that all was lost, she rode off at full speed with a



Silver Coin, dated 1565, with the uncrowned heads of Mary and Darnley face to face

few friends towards the south, and covered sixty miles before she rested.

Reaching the coast of the Solway Firth, she embarked in a fishing boat, and crossed to England; she hoped that Queen Elizabeth would protect her, and restore her to her kingdom.

Mary's Unhappy End

Mary's presence in England was a source of danger to Elizabeth. Years before, Mary had claimed to be the rightful queen of England, and many of the English Catholics were inclined to support her claim; she was certainly heir to the throne, in the event of Elizabeth's death. The Catholics of the north flocked to her, now that she was unfortunate and in need of friends; and the Duke of Norfolk, the head of the English nobility, wished to marry her.

Mary demanded that Elizabeth should either restore her to her position as Queen of Scotland, or allow her to go to France. Elizabeth said that

she would help her, if she could show that the charges made against her by the Scots were untrue. But Mary declared that she, a queen, could not be tried by English judges; and then Elizabeth decided to keep her in England.

For the next twenty years Mary passed a weary life, moving from one mansion to another in the charge of guardians set over her by Elizabeth. But from the very beginning of her captivity she was the cause of rebellions against the English queen.

Two lords in the north of England took up arms for the Scottish queen, intending to release her from captivity, and then march on to London. But the attempt failed, the leaders fled, and hundreds of the rebels were executed.

Mary was then committed to the charge of the Earl of Shrewsbury, and at first enjoyed much freedom. She lived like a guest in the earl's house, received visits and letters from her friends, and rode about the country hunting.

All the time, her friends were working to make her Queen of England. Some were trying to persuade the King of Spain to invade England in her favor. They wished to depose Elizabeth, to restore the old religion, and to make Mary queen; and several plots were formed for carrying out these designs. As a result of these plots, Mary was kept more closely a prisoner.

Walsingham, the Secretary of State, managed to

get possession of Mary's letters, both those written to her and those written by her. From these letters he found that a young gentleman named Anthony Babington had agreed with other gentlemen, some of whom were actually in Elizabeth's service, to kill Elizabeth and rescue Mary.

Mary seems to have consented to this plot, and Walsingham allowed the plotters to complete their plans before he took any steps against them. At length Babington accidentally found out that all was known, and tried to escape. He and four others stained their faces with walnut juice, dressed themselves as laborers, and hid in a barn a few miles north of London.

They were soon discovered, and all the conspirators were brought to trial and executed. Mary herself, who was expecting every day to be rescued, was arrested by a troop of soldiers as she was riding out among a hunting party. She was taken to Fotheringay Castle, and charged with plotting the death of the queen. After a trial before forty-five judges she was found guilty, and the Parliament begged Elizabeth to have her put to death.

Elizabeth at first hesitated. Mary was a woman and a queen; and, though she was such a dangerous enemy, Elizabeth shrank from signing the warrant for her execution.

But it was quite certain that, so long as Mary lived, Elizabeth's life would not be safe, and Eng-

land would be in constant dread of invasion. If she were dead, England might have to fight open enemies, but would no longer fear secret plots in Mary's favor.

So at last Elizabeth gave way, and on Wednesday, February 18, 1587, the hapless Queen of Scots was beheaded at Fotheringay. She met her death bravely and calmly, declaring her innocence; indeed, there are to this day people who believe that the charges against her were false.

There is no doubt that most Englishmen of that time believed her to be guilty, and were glad that the woman whom they regarded as the enemy of their freedom was at last removed.

*placet que pour mon ame ie soye priée de
partir de ce que me devez & d'en Chouhien
de Jhesus Christ lequel ie prray demayn a
ma mort pour vous me laisser de quel fonder
un obit & faire les aulmones requises
le mercredi a deux heures apres minuit*

*Vostre tres affectonnée & bien
bonne seur MARY*

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

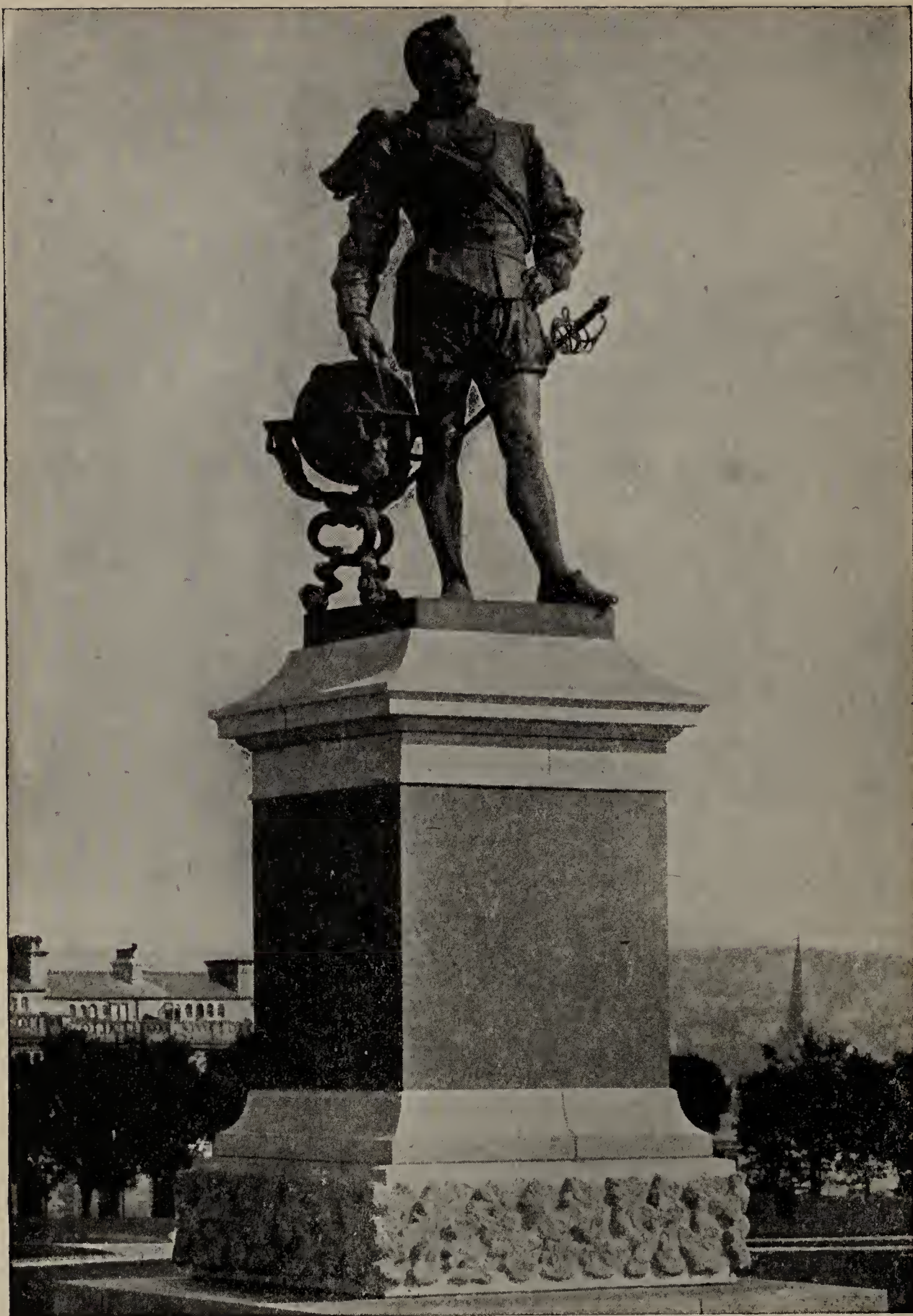
Early Life and Adventures

In the last years of the reign of Edward VI, a little, chubby, blue-eyed, curly-headed boy might have been seen playing on the deck of an old ship moored off Chatham dockyard. His father, a strong Protestant, was reader of prayers to the royal navy, a post which was given him when he fled from a Catholic rising in his native Tavistock.

The boy was Francis Drake. Brought up on the hulk which was his father's only house, his eyes were constantly upon masts and rigging and guns, his ears were filled with the rough talk and the jolly songs of the mariners, and he grew up with a longing to enter the royal navy.

When Queen Mary came to the throne, his father lost his place as reader of prayers, and Francis became a ship-boy on a small vessel that traded to France and Holland. It was hard and rough work, but the boy grew up sturdy and strong, and with a deep hatred of the King of Spain for the cruelty with which he treated his Dutch subjects.

When Elizabeth became queen, Drake's father was made clergyman of a little parish in Kent, and soon Drake's master died and left him his ship. With this he traded for some years; but when the King of Spain, by shutting his seaports against



THE STATUE OF DRAKE AT PLYMOUTH
By Sir Edgar Boehm

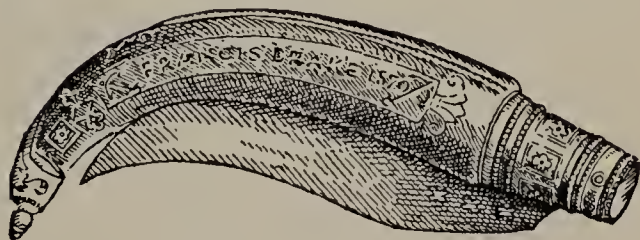
English ships, ruined Drake's trade, he sold his ship and entered the service of John Hawkins, the bold sea-rover and slave-trader.

After a successful trading voyage the English ships were driven by a storm into a Spanish port on the Gulf of Mexico. There, in spite of a promise to allow them to refit in safety, the Spaniards basely attacked them unawares, and Hawkins lost half his ships. From that moment he and Drake vowed to have no mercy on Spain.

The life of Drake is so full of adventure that a whole book might easily be written on it. We have space here for only one or two stories about the daring sea-king.

On Whitsun eve, 1572, Drake sailed out of Plymouth Sound in command of two ships, with crews of seventy-three men and boys all told. His object was nothing less than to seize a port on the American coast, where the Spaniards had stored up treasures to be sent to Spain.

After a voyage of six weeks he landed at a safe place on the coast, and proceeded to put together three small pinnaces which he had brought in pieces from Plymouth. He was joined by an adventurer named Ranse, and when all was ready the four boats sailed out,



Drake's Clasp Knife

manned by a force of brave, dogged seamen. At midnight the boats were lying in the bay beneath the town.

By the light of the moon the men rowed for the shore. They landed, rushed up to a battery, and tumbled the guns into the sea while the gunners ran away. Then, leaving a few men to guard the boats, Drake divided the rest into two parties, and with blazing torches and the din of trumpets and drums they dashed up the streets.

In the center of the town they were met by a large force of Spaniards. Firing one volley of shot and arrows, the Englishmen charged at full speed, and with sword and pike drove them in headlong flight out of the town.

Then Drake and his men made for the governor's house. A wonderful sight met their eyes — an immense pile of silver bars, 10 feet in breadth, 12 feet in height, and 70 feet in length. But Drake knew there was gold somewhere, and without waiting to remove the silver, he hurried off to seek for the richer treasure.

Suddenly a terrible storm of rain came on, which loosened bowstrings and rendered bows and muskets almost useless for a time. The Spaniards now returned in force to defend their treasures, and Drake was leading his men on to the attack when he rolled over with a wound in his leg. This

alarmed his men, who said his life was dearer to them than all the wealth of the Indies.

In spite of his struggles, and paying no heed to his fierce demand that they should continue the fight, they carried him off to the boats, and just as they rowed out of the harbor the sun rose. They had failed, but they had given the Spaniards a terrible

fright. Other attempts had better success, and gained for him among the Spaniards the name of "El Draque", the Dragon.

After many more adventures, Drake returned to England laden with the treasures he had captured. It was Sunday morning when he reached Plymouth, and when his guns fired a salute on entering the port, the people rushed out of church to see the gallant captain, leaving the minister alone.



One of Drake's Soldiers

Drake's Last Years

Drake was the first English navigator to sail round the world, and the story of the perils and miseries and triumphs of that famous voyage would fill this book. With one other story, how he singed the King of Spain's beard, we must leave the bold hero.

The King of Spain had been for a long time preparing a great fleet, with which he meant to conquer England. One day Drake slipped out of Plymouth with twenty-four ships, and set sail for Spain to see what damage he could do to the Armada, as the Spanish fleet was named.

After sailing round the coast, he led his fleet into the bay within which lies Cadiz harbor, and announced that he was going to attack the huge ships which lay at anchor there. Some of his officers thought him mad, for the Spanish ships were not only powerful, but they were defended by batteries on shore.

As the sun was setting, Drake sailed into the harbor. The merchant ships at once cut their cables and attempted to escape from the terrible Dragon, whose very name they feared, while ten warships came out to defend them. Having sent a part of his fleet to capture the flying vessels, with the rest Drake met the Spanish warships, which, before they could get their guns to bear, were pounded and ruined by English shot.

Ship after ship was captured and sunk or burned. Far in the depth of the harbor lay the splendid ship of Spain's greatest admiral, amid a crowd of other huge vessels. Drake made straight for these, and, before long, they too had been plundered and destroyed.

Thus in thirty-six hours, Drake and his bold seamen had utterly destroyed many of the finest ships in the world, and captured enough provisions to store his fleet for months. This he called "singeing the King of Spain's beard"; and thus he succeeded in delaying the departure of the great Armada for a year, until new ships and fresh stores had been got ready by the Spaniards to replace those they had lost.

With the defeat of the Armada in the year 1588, Drake crowned his fame. He had been knighted by the queen on his return from his voyage round the world, and he was now the darling of the whole country. All Europe rang with the glory of his name, and in Spain the mischievous street boys yelled under the windows of the beaten Spanish admiral: "Drake is coming! Drake is coming!"

During the remaining eight years of his life, Drake won no more great successes. When Spain was preparing a new armada for the conquest of England, Drake led an expedition against it, and destroyed much shipping, but the loss of life on the English side was terrible.



Sir John Hawkins

He joined in an attempt to restore to the throne of Portugal the sovereign whom Philip had deposed, but it ended in failure. Then Drake in some way lost the favor of the queen, and while other admirals were scouring the seas, he had to remain at home as governor of Plymouth. There he did good work by building mills, and by

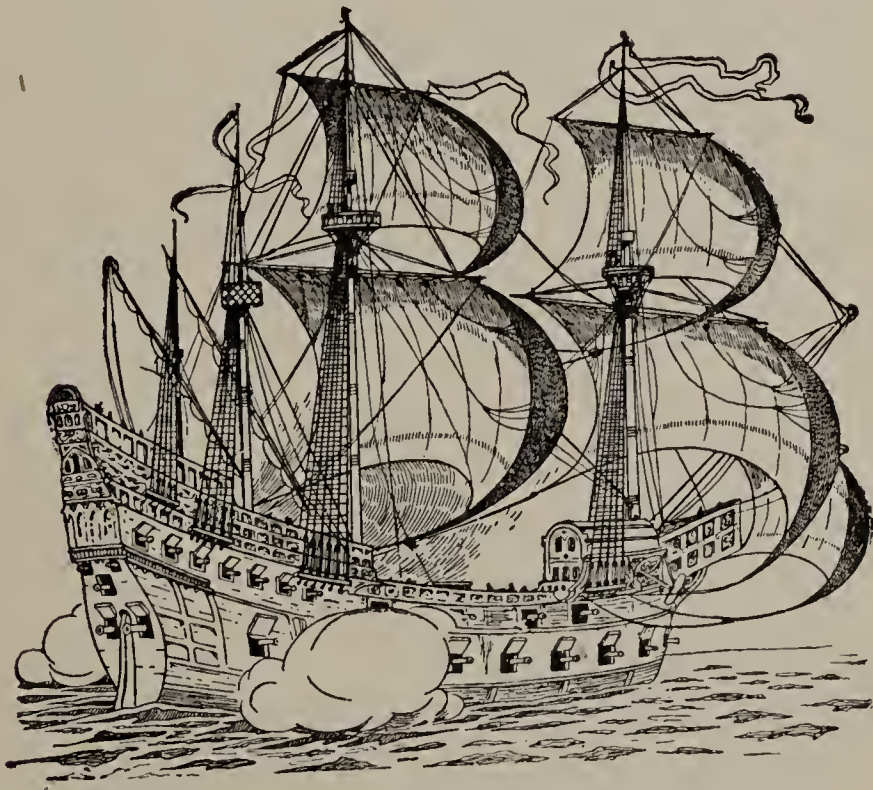
bringing a supply of water from the river Meavy.

At last he got leave to go with his old comrade, Sir John Hawkins, to capture a treasure-ship off the American coast. When they reached the place the ship had been removed. They tried to capture the seaports along the coast, but these were now well fortified and guarded, and the English had to retire without success.

Then fever broke out, and Sir John Hawkins died. Presently Drake too was seized with illness, and could not leave his bed. On January 28, 1596, he rose and dressed himself and called for his arms, shouting out terrible words in the madness of fever. When he was quiet he was led back to bed, and soon the bold hero was dead.

Drake did much for the strength and glory of England. He believed he was doing God's work in taking from Spain the wealth that would have gone to help crush the Protestants. He never allowed churches to be destroyed, he never killed his prisoners, and his men had strict orders never to hurt a woman or an unarmed man.

Thus even the Spaniards, while they hated him, admired his skill and bravery, and respected him for a generosity rare in those rough times. At one time Philip offered to take him into his service, which shows how highly he valued the great admiral, and how little he knew the spirit of a true-born Englishman.



Spanish Warship of Drake's Time

THE SPANISH ARMADA

The Coming of the Armada

“ On the afternoon of July 19, 1588, a group of English captains was collected at the Bowling Green on the Hoe at Plymouth, a group whose equal has never before or since been brought together.”

There was Sir Francis Drake, the terror of every Spanish coast in the Old World and the New; there was Sir John Hawkins, the rough veteran of many a daring voyage and of many a desperate battle; there was Sir Martin Frobisher, one of the earliest explorers of the Arctic Seas; there was the high-admiral of England, Lord Howard of Effingham, a man of a wise and noble courage, skillful in sea matters, wary and prudent, and beloved by the sailors.

“ A match at bowls was being played, in which Drake and other high officers of the fleet were engaged, when a small armed vessel was seen running before the wind into Plymouth harbor, with all sails set. Her commander landed in haste, and eagerly sought the place where the English lord-admiral and his captains were standing.

“ He was the master of a Scotch privateer, and he told the English officers that he had that morning seen the Spanish Armada off the English coast. At this exciting information the captains began to

hurry down to the water, but Drake coolly checked his comrades, and insisted that the match should be played out."

"There is time to finish the game first, and beat the Spaniards afterwards," he said. That was the spirit in which these men went to the fight.

Beacon fires were lit along the coast. "The warning flew to London, swift messengers galloping behind it. There was saddling and arming in village and town, and musters flocking to their posts. Loyal England forgot its difference of creeds, and knew nothing but that the invader was at the door."

"The most fortunate and invincible Armada" was the title which Philip of Spain, in the pride of his heart, gave to the great fleet which he had been preparing for so many years. With this fleet he intended to revenge the many injuries and insults he had suffered at the hands of Englishmen, and to depose Elizabeth. He wished also to set up again the Roman Catholic religion in England, and to use the power of England to crush the rebellion of his subjects in the Low Countries.



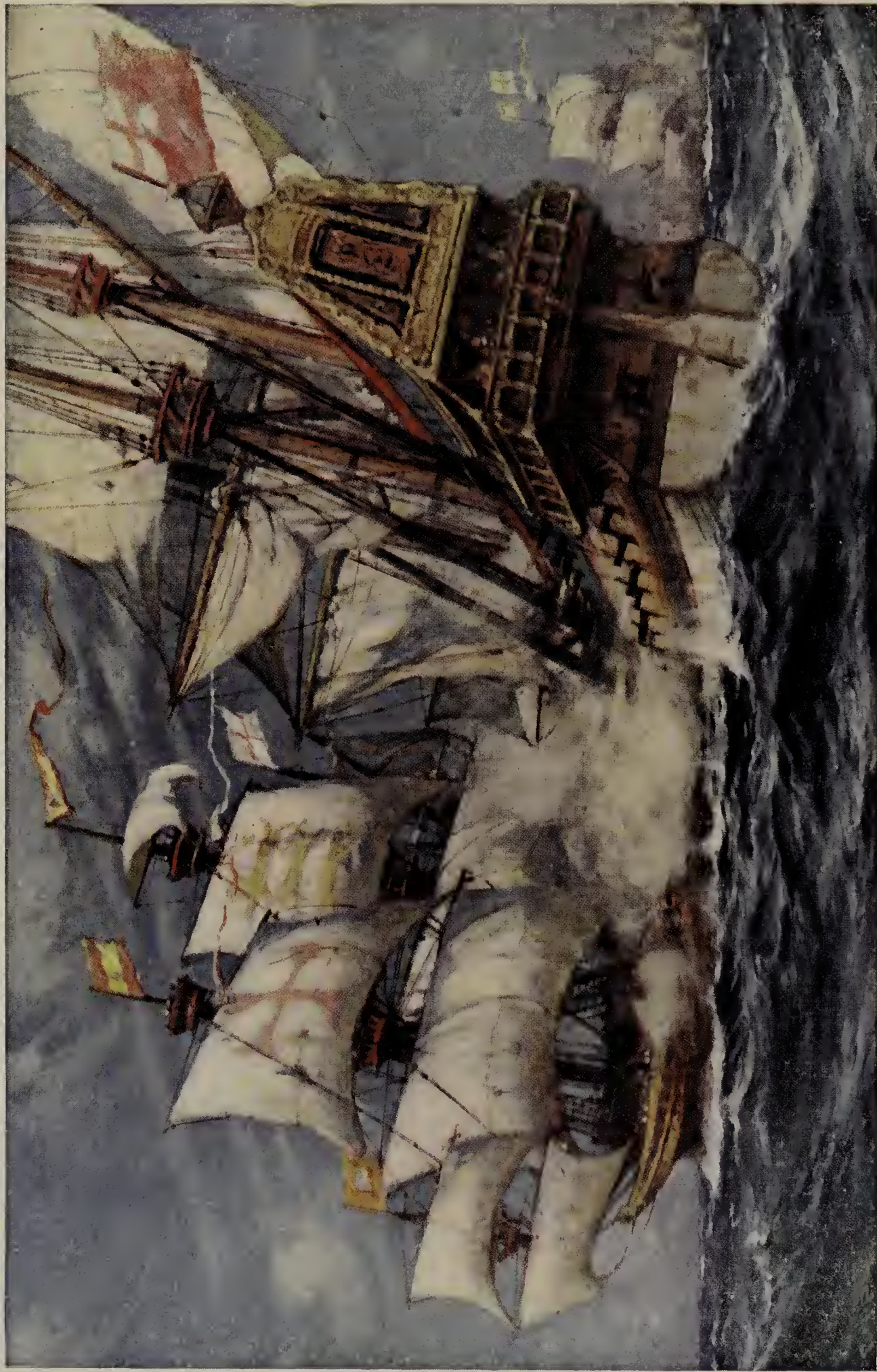
Philip II of Spain

For years he had spent untold treasure upon his preparations. Time after time English seamen had captured ships returning to Spain laden with the spoils of America; once Drake had even ventured into Cadiz harbor, and wrought unspeakable damage among the ships collected there. In spite of these mishaps the fleet at last sailed for England, under the Duke of Medina Sidonia, one of the greatest of Spanish grandees.

There were 132 Spanish ships in all, many of them huge vessels that rose like castles out of the sea. Seventeen thousand of the picked soldiers of Spain were on board, with eight thousand sailors, and hundreds of doctors, priests, and slaves.

At that time the royal navy of England consisted only of 36 ships, all of them smaller than the warships of Spain. But many private gentlemen, sea rovers, and merchants had ships, which they were eager to send to sea for the defense of their loved England.

England was fortunate in her captains, men of splendid daring and courage, who had fought and beaten the Spaniards on the sea in all parts of the world. The common seamen were worthy of their commanders. They loved their country, and would have died for their officers. They cheerfully put up with the bad and scanty food which was all that the stinginess of the queen would allow to be provided.



THE ARMADA IN THE CHANNEL; AN INCIDENT IN THE RUNNING FIGHT

From an original painting by C. M. Padday

The Defeat of the Armada

When the game of bowls was finished, the English captains put out to sea, and waited for the coming of the enemy. As the beacons gave the signal, ships of all sorts and sizes poured out from every harbor, until the English fleet numbered some 160 vessels, most of them manned by volunteers.

Now, Philip's plan was for the Armada to sail up the Channel until it reached Dunkirk, and there to anchor and allow a huge army, under the Duke of Parma, who had succeeded Alva as governor of the Netherlands, to cross from Antwerp to England in safety. The Spaniards were anxious to get through the dangerous Channel as soon as possible.

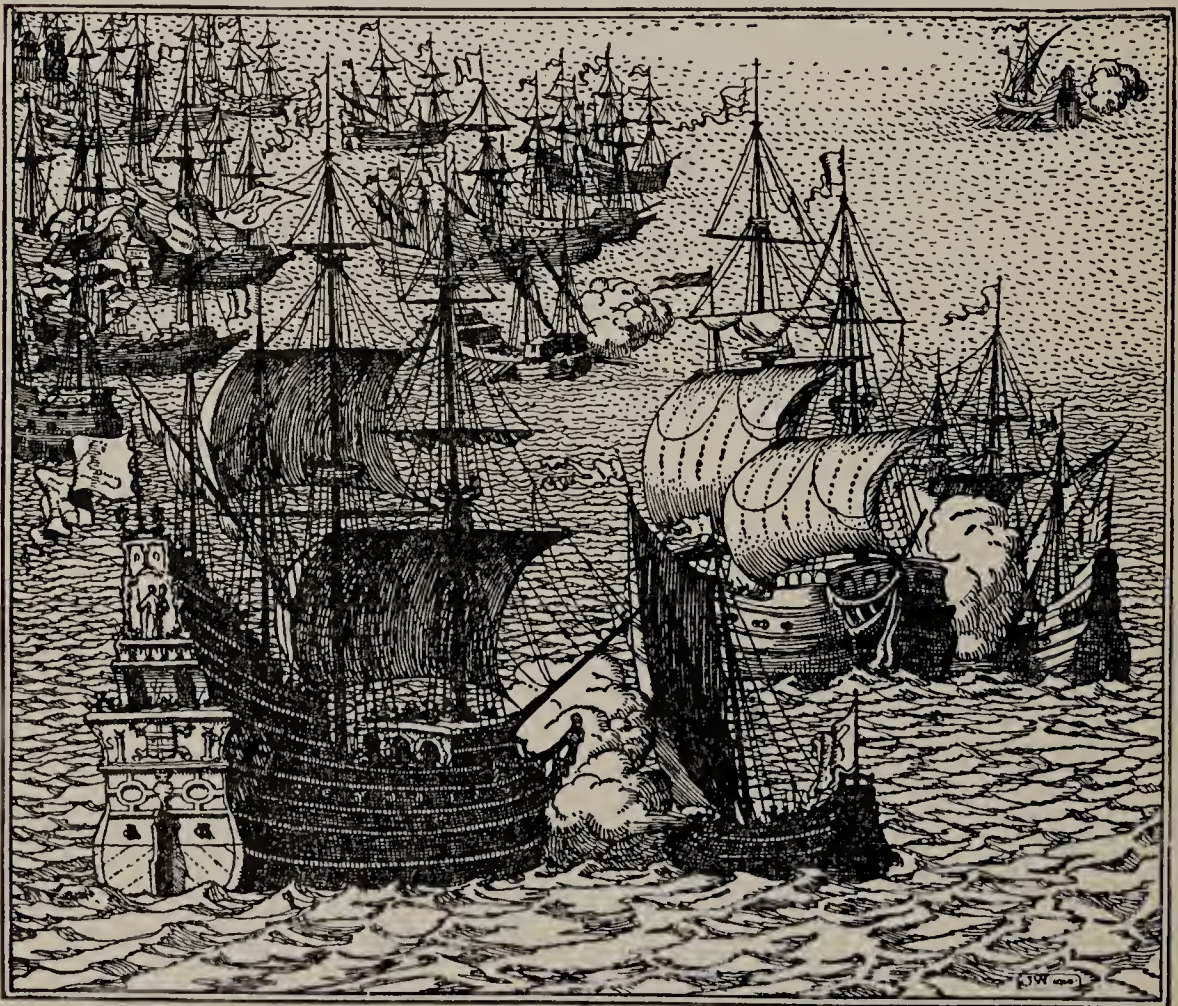
The plan of the English admirals was to avoid a general battle with the enemy, but to single out and attack certain of their ships, doing as much damage as they could with as little risk as possible to themselves. When the fight began, it was soon evident that the English had much in their favor.

The English sailors were skillful at their work, and could fire rapidly at the Spanish ships, making every shot tell. The guns of the Spaniards were worked by soldiers who were not accustomed to the sea; they fired slowly, their aim was not true, and most of their shot passed over the low decks of the small English vessels.

The Spaniards tried to lay hold of the English

ships with grappling-irons, trusting in the superior numbers of their men if it came to a hand-to-hand fight. But Lord Howard, acting on the advice of Sir Walter Raleigh, had given strict orders to avoid coming to close quarters. The English captains therefore sailed their light ships as near as they pleased to those of the enemy, fired their broadsides, and sped to a safe distance before the unwieldy Spanish warships could be brought fairly into action.

For a week this method of fighting, so confusing



English Ships attacking the Spanish Armada. (From a Dutch engraving)

to the Spaniards, was pursued by the nimble English; but the Armada, in spite of all their efforts, gradually drew nearer to its destination. It had suffered considerable damage, and two or three ships had been captured; but it was still strong and undaunted, and the English had used up nearly all their ammunition, apparently without much success.

At last the Spanish ships dropped anchor off Calais, with the English two miles behind them. At all costs, thought the English admirals, the Armada must now be dislodged, for a change in the weather might enable the Duke of Parma to cross in safety under its protection.

After midnight on the following day, which was Sunday, eight English ships, filled with fuel and smeared all over with pitch, were rowed silently in black darkness towards the crowded Spanish vessels lying at anchor. Suddenly the fire ships burst into flame, and were carried by the wind and the tide right upon the Armada. A panic seized the Spaniards at the sight of these blazing monsters. Cables were cut in mad haste, and the swift tide carried the great fleet away from its anchorage into the open sea.

In the morning the English admirals fell on the disordered fleet. The showers of burning shot from their guns crashed into the hulls of the enemy, and as soon as one ship was disabled another was attacked. For six hours the fight continued, and



Medal commemorating the Defeat of the Spanish Armada

when night fell Drake kept close watch upon the Armada, hoping that the wind would drive the ships upon the sandbanks of the Dutch coast, and place them at his mercy.

Next day the fight went on again. The Armada was drawing nearer and nearer to its doom, when suddenly the wind changed, and the Spanish admiral, thankful at having escaped wreck, gave orders to make all sail for the north, in the hope of escaping round Scotland. It was a long and perilous route, but no other was open. "There was never anything pleased me better," wrote Drake, "than the seeing the enemy flying with a southerly wind to the northward."

For two days Drake and Howard chased the Spaniards. When their powder and shot failed, they did not at once desist. But a tempest sprang up, and with bitter disappointment at losing their prey they were compelled to return to the south, leaving the remnant of the great Armada to its fate.

Storms tossed it upon the rock-bound coasts of Scotland and Ireland, and many ships were crushed and battered to destruction. Numbers of the Span-

iards got ashore on the Irish coast; some of these were slain by the wild natives, others were captured and sent from village to village, with halters about their necks, to be shipped to England.

Elizabeth disdained to put them to death, and scorned to keep them; so they were all sent back to their own country, “to witness and recount the worthy achievements of their invincible navy”.

Thus the storms joined with the dauntless bravery and unrivaled skill of English seamen to destroy proud Philip’s great fleet. “God blew, and they were scattered”, was the motto inscribed in Latin upon the medal struck, by Elizabeth’s orders, to commemorate the event. Since that time England has striven to keep her position strong upon the seas, and has looked upon her navy as the surest means of defense.



Hayes Barton Farm, Devonshire, the Birthplace of Sir Walter Raleigh

SIR WALTER RALEIGH

Raleigh a Favorite of the Queen

Among the great men of Queen Elizabeth's Court, none earned more splendid fame than Sir Walter Raleigh. Like Drake, he was a man of Devon; he was born near the sea, in an old farmhouse at the village of Budleigh, in the year 1552.

As a boy, he is said to have been fond of the company of sailors, and of reading all the books of voyages upon which he could lay hands. After studying at Oxford, he went to France among

a band of gentlemen soldiers, who had offered to help the French Protestants in their fight for liberty of religion. He afterwards gave his services to the people of the Low Countries, who were struggling against Spanish oppression.

On returning to England, he began to study law in London; but he spent a good deal of his time in freaks and frolics with other young men of fashion. Presently he was made captain of a hundred soldiers in Ireland, where the people were constantly in rebellion. Raleigh did good service against the rebels, and performed many daring feats of arms; but he grew tired of his duties there, and wrote to the Earl of Leicester, the queen's favorite, asking for other employment.

At Leicester's invitation he returned to England, and quickly won high favor with the queen. It is said that Elizabeth, walking one day with her ladies, came to a miry puddle, and hesitated to go on; whereupon Raleigh, who happened to be there, took off a new plush cloak from his shoulders, and spread it over the mud. The queen stepped on this fair footcloth with a gracious smile; she was pleased at Raleigh's readiness, and attracted by his handsome appearance.

Raleigh soon became the queen's favorite courtier. Elizabeth liked his looks, for he was tall and handsome, with curly hair and blue eyes; she enjoyed his company, for he was polite and witty, and



Sir Walter Raleigh

amused her with the stories he told in his broad but pleasant west-country accent. She made him captain of the yeomen of the guard, whose duty was to guard the palace and the person of the queen; and she listened with attention to his advice in matters of state.

Raleigh now rose high in wealth and importance; the queen gave him estates in England and Ireland, and much of the property of the traitor Anthony Babington came to him. He spent large sums in buying armor and fine clothes, diamonds and pearls, books and pictures; and in erecting houses, laying out gardens, and building ships.

But he was not satisfied with an idle Court life; he wished to *do* something in the world. He proposed to join his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in an expedition to Newfoundland, but the queen would not part with him. Sir Humphrey went without him, and died on his return voyage.

Though Raleigh was not allowed to seek adventures himself, he got leave from the queen to fit out an expedition for settling a number of colonists in America; for he had an idea that a great English empire might be founded beyond the seas. When

his men returned from their voyage, bringing splendid furs and pearls, he called the part of America where they had landed Virginia, in honor of the Virgin Queen.

He sent other expeditions to Virginia, and tried to found a colony there; but his efforts were not successful. Every time his men returned they brought with them new plants and fruits, such as potatoes, tobacco, and melons, and told wonderful stories of the wealth and beauty of the great continent.

Raleigh was said to have been the first to smoke tobacco in England. There is a story that one day a servant, bringing a jug of ale into the room where Raleigh was sitting, was alarmed to see smoke coming from his mouth. The servant instantly emptied the jug over his master's head, to put out the fire which he thought was burning within him.

Raleigh in Disgrace

A year after the defeat of the Spanish Armada, Raleigh paid a visit to his Irish estates. At that time Edmund Spenser, the great poet, was secretary to the governor of Ireland; Raleigh visited him, and read the first three books of his poem *The Faerie Queene*. When he returned to England he brought Spenser with him, and introduced him to the notice of Elizabeth.

Raleigh now displeased the queen by marrying one of her maids of honor without permission. For this he suffered six months' imprisonment in the Tower of London, where, however, he was well treated.

Three years later he set out on a voyage to Guiana, a country in South America which was reported to be marvelously rich in gold. One of its kings was said to delight in rubbing himself with turpentine, and then rolling about amid his gold dust till he looked like a golden image.

Raleigh and his men sailed up the river Orinoco, in search of a wonderful gold mine of which they had heard; but though they saw signs of gold and silver in the soil, they did not discover the mine. On his return Raleigh wrote an account of the expedition, in which he told some strange stories that he had heard: stories of a tribe of women warriors, and of a race of people who had eyes in their shoulders and mouths in their breasts.

In the year after his return, news came that another fleet was fitting out in Spain for the invasion of England. The English Government resolved to destroy it, and a fleet set out for Cadiz. Raleigh was one of the principal commanders, and planned the attack which proved such a brilliant success.

Seven years after this Queen Elizabeth died, and James VI of Scotland, son of Mary Queen of Scots and next heir to the throne, became King James I



SPENSER READING *THE FAIRY QUEEN* TO SIR WALTER RALEIGH

From the painting by John Claxton in the possession of Mr. Burdett-Coutts

of England. The new king at once showed great dislike towards Raleigh, who had not paid humble court to him before his accession. Raleigh, too, was proud; and his pride, with his wealth and his successes, had made for him many enemies, who poisoned the king's mind against him.

A few months after the accession of James, Raleigh was accused of joining in a plot to remove him from the throne. At the trial, no real evidence was brought to support the charge; Coke, the attorney-general, who prosecuted, did little except to heap abuse upon him. "I will prove thee the rankest traitor in all England," he cried. "No, Master Attorney," was Raleigh's answer; "I am no traitor. Whether I live or die, I shall stand as true a subject as ever the king hath."

Nevertheless he was found guilty, and sentenced to death; but James shank from carrying out the sentence, and sent Raleigh to the Tower. There he remained for thirteen years, in spite of all efforts to obtain his release; even the queen and Prince Henry, the king's eldest son, thought his imprisonment shameful, and begged for his pardon. "Who but my father," the high-spirited prince exclaimed, "would keep such a bird in such a cage?"

The prisoner made splendid use of his time. He conducted experiments in chemistry, studied medicine, and discovered a way of obtaining fresh water from sea water. He wrote books on the art of war,

on shipbuilding, and on other subjects. Above all, he began a History of the World, which, when it was published, won admiration from everybody but the king.

Raleigh's Last Years

While in the Tower, Raleigh several times tried to gain his release by promising to sail to Guiana, find the rich gold mine there, and bring back untold wealth to the king's treasury. He was so sure of success, that he said he was willing to be thrown into the sea, in mid ocean, if he obtained no gold.

At length, in the year 1616, James released him, and allowed him to sail on his quest; but, being anxious to keep on good terms with Spain, the king gave strict orders that Spanish property was not to be injured, and that no Spaniard should be attacked. Raleigh promised to obey these orders, which he repeated to his captains when he sailed.

On arriving in Guiana he fell sick, and had to send his men into the country without him. As they marched in search of the mine, they were attacked by a force of Spaniards. In the fight, Raleigh's son, a young man of twenty-three years of age, was killed, and his comrades avenged his loss by storming and sacking a Spanish town.

After a fruitless search for the mine, they returned with sad hearts to Raleigh. Broken-hearted at the loss of his son, and distressed by mutiny

among his men, Raleigh returned to England. He was again thrown into the Tower, and the Spanish ambassador demanded his death for the mischief he had done to Spanish possessions.

An inquiry was held, but it could not be proved that Raleigh had willfully disobeyed the king's orders. James was determined to please the King of Spain by putting Raleigh to death, so he ordered him to be executed on the old charge of conspiracy, on which he had been sentenced fifteen years before.

Prince Henry was now dead, but the queen again begged her husband to pardon Raleigh; and the prisoner's wife and second son wrote piteous letters pleading for mercy. Raleigh himself had no fear of death, though he had many noble schemes that he would have liked to carry out if his life were spared.

He was led out to execution on a cold October day. A great crowd had gathered around the scaffold in Old Palace Yard, Westminster; and as Sir Walter walked by with cheerful face and proud step, they admired him, and murmured it was shame for him to die.

Mounting the scaffold, he made an eloquent speech, declaring himself innocent of treason against the king. He begged the people to pray for him, and concluded: "I have a long journey to take, and must bid the company farewell".

Then he called for the axe, and feeling its edge,

he said: " This is a sharp medicine; but it is a sure cure for all diseases ".

So died Sir Walter Raleigh, bravely, as he had lived. He was in the first rank of discoverers, a great admiral, a fine soldier, a wise counsellor, a witty courtier, a poet, and a great prose writer.

One thing about Raleigh should be kept in mind: it is to him that England owes the beginning of its great colonial empire. Though his own attempts at founding colonies failed, men thought of them, and of Raleigh's ideas; and years after his death others took up his unfinished work, and the vast empire which he had only dreamed of became a reality.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, featuring a large, stylized initial 'R' followed by a long, flowing horizontal line and a final flourish that ends in a small dot.

Signature of Sir Walter Raleigh



Room in which Shakespeare was born

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

Shakespeare's Life

In the last year of Queen Elizabeth's reign, there might have been seen, in the Mermaid tavern off Cheapside, as jolly and witty a company as ever met to enjoy an hour's pleasant chat.

There was Sir Walter Raleigh, courtier, soldier, poet, and wit; there was Ben Jonson, once a soldier, now known as a great scholar and poet, — a big man with a bad temper; there was many another man whose name was made famous by play and poem.

There, too, perhaps a little less boisterous in his merriment than some of the party, was a man who was called Will Shakespeare by the rest; one who watched the others with a twinkle in his light hazel eye, and whose voice they all listened to eagerly when he joined in their talk.

That pleasant man, with the high forehead and long auburn hair, was the writer whom Englishmen boast of as the greatest poet the world has seen. He was not great by birth; his father was a merchant in a country town: it was his own mighty genius that raised him to his high place among the world's great men.

In Warwickshire, the heart of England, there is a little town called Stratford-on-Avon. Here William Shakespeare was born in April, 1564. His father seems to have carried on several trades, more particularly those of glover and wool-dealer, and was a man of sufficient importance to be elected high-bailiff of his town.

Doubtless the boy was sent to King Edward VI's grammar school in the town, where he learned among other things a little Latin. Perhaps, like the boys he afterwards wrote about, he went "with his satchel and shining morning face, creeping like snail unwillingly to school"; or, like those other boys he mentions, sometimes played truant and picked blackberries instead.

He left school early, for his father fell into mis-

fortune. What he did then is not known; but some people say that he helped his father, others that he became a butcher's apprentice, while others think he must have entered a lawyer's office. He certainly married when he was eighteen years old; and, just after two little twins were born, he left home to seek his fortune in the great city of London.

Now, in the Guildhall of his native town, plays had sometimes been performed by traveling companies of actors. No doubt Shakespeare had been present at some of these performances, and he must have heartily enjoyed them; for when he arrived in London, poor and a stranger, he seems to have gone at once to the theater in search of work.

It is said that he began by holding the horses of the gentlemen who came to see the play, and that he was so careful and polite, that his services were much sought after. He paid boys to help him, and gentlemen, as they rode up, called out for "Shakespeare's boys" to come and mind their horses.

Then Shakespeare was taken inside the theater to assist the actors, and by and by he became an actor himself. Presently he began to show that he could revise and improve the plays which were acted; and after helping other men to write their works, at last he wrote plays that were entirely his own.

His beautiful poems and plays won him the favor and friendship of great people. Several times he acted with his company before Queen Elizabeth, and she was much pleased with his plays.

By and by he became one of the owners of the theater; and, being careful in business matters, he rose to a position of ease and comfort, if not of wealth. He often paid visits to his home and

family at Stratford, and it is pleasant to know that he helped his father to regain his prosperity. All his friends loved him for his gentle, genial spirit, and everybody admired him for his upright and manly character.

At length he
was rich enough
to buy a large
house in his
native town;



thither he returned to spend his last years as a quiet country gentleman with his family. He died on April 23, 1616, and was buried in the Parish Church at Stratford.

Shakespeare's Works

Shakespeare's works are all printed in one book, and that not a very large one. Perhaps some may wonder why Shakespeare has won fame as the greatest of the world's poets. It would be very difficult to tell the reason in simple words; but whoever reads Shakespeare's works for himself, and thinks about them, will begin to see a little why he deserves such praise.

For one thing, his poems are so melodious and musical; the mere words sound so pleasantly in the ear; and when Shakespeare has said a thing, it seems impossible that it could ever be said in a better way. The little songs which occur in some of the plays are among the most charming gems of poetry in the English language.

Shakespeare's plays, also, are wonderfully interesting. Some of them tell over again the stories of some of the English kings; of the poor weak Richard II; the crafty Henry IV; the brave Henry V, who fought and conquered at Agincourt, and his wild pranks when as yet only Madcap Harry.

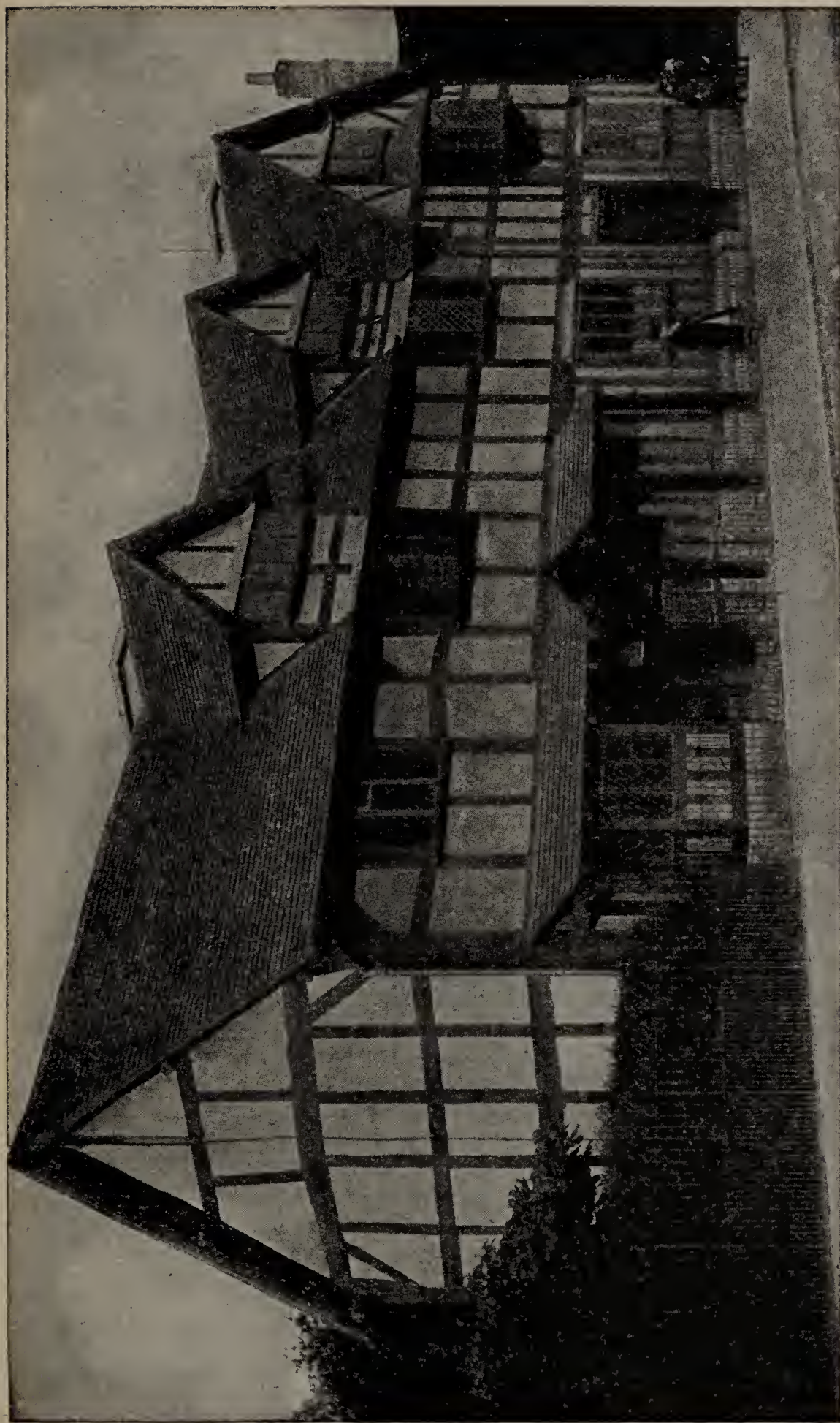
Others tell stories of the ancient world. One is the sad, splendid life of Coriolanus, the great

Roman general who was expelled from Rome because the people could not endure his pride, and who, when he was going to fight against the city, turned back at the pleading of his wife and mother. Another is the story of the murder of Julius Cæsar; another, that of the Roman general Antony, who lost an empire through his own weakness and folly.

Other plays tell stories of imaginary characters; of Portia, the noble lady who saved the life of her husband's friend; of Othello, the noble man who was led to murder his sweet innocent wife by the lies of a villain; of Rosalind, the bright, happy girl who dressed herself as a young man, and went gaily into banishment with her cousin Celia.

Shakespeare was great because he knew so much. He was not, perhaps, very learned in books; but he knew a great deal about plants and animals, whose habits he must have carefully observed; and, above all, he seemed to know human nature through and through. The characters in his plays all seem to be living people; among them there are heroes and cowards, fine soldiers and feeble-witted countrymen, witty jesters and amusing rogues, lovely and tender ladies, and tigers in woman's shape.

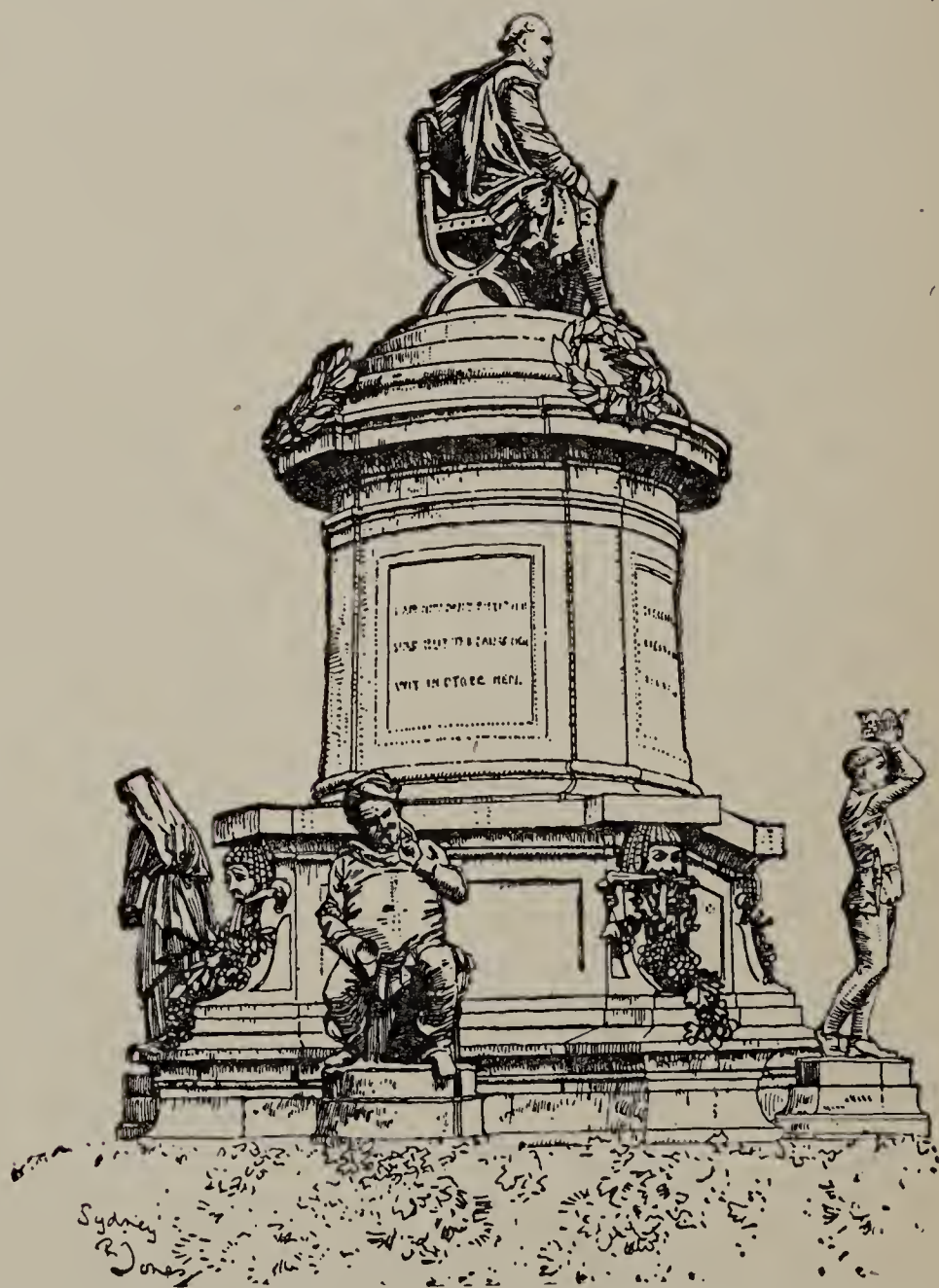
Shakespeare seemed to be able to show us almost every kind of man and woman, good and bad, and to know how to touch all our feelings, whether sad or joyous. We cannot help feeling sorry when we see poor old King Lear wandering in the storm,



SHAKESPEARE'S BIRTHPLACE, STRATFORD-ON-AVON

The house is built in the half-timber style of the Tudor period. The upper window on the left is that of the room where the poet was born

made mad by the unkindness of his daughters; we must laugh at the mishaps of the fat, jolly, cowardly knight Falstaff; Englishmen feel a thrill of pride in their country when they hear the splendid words of the dying John of Gaunt—



The Statue of Shakespeare in the Memorial Gardens, Stratford

This royal throne of kings, this scepter'd isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea.

And we can share in the delight with which the men of Elizabeth's time, a few years after the defeat of the Armada, heard one of Shakespeare's characters say—

This England never did, nor never shall,
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror.

Last of all, though Shakespeare wrote his plays only for the amusement of those who went to see them, they contain many good lessons, which may help those who read them to be better, and wiser, and happier. It is pleasant to think that the play of *The Tempest*, probably the last that Shakespeare wrote, ends with scenes in which those who have been wronged forgive those who have wronged them; and that the great poet passed his last years in goodwill with all men.

THE PILGRIM FATHERS

Religious Freedom

We have seen how, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Englishmen made many voyages over the western seas to America. This they did partly out of a reckless spirit of adventure, partly out of hatred of Spain, and partly to gain a share of the matchless wealth of the New World. We have seen, too, that Raleigh had a grand dream of founding a British empire beyond the seas.

There came a time when Englishmen sought America simply to find a home, because it had become impossible for them to live peaceably in England. No place was home to them where they were not free to worship God in the way they believed to be right; and when this liberty was denied them in England, they left their native land rather than give up their religious beliefs.

When the English Church was first separated from that of Rome, the differences between the services of the two Churches were not great. But soon some of the Reformers wished to make greater changes than the majority of the people liked. A party grew up called the Puritans, who wished to make the Church service much plainer and simpler than it had hitherto been.

Now that the sovereign was head of the Church,

the people were ordered to worship in the way which the sovereign settled for them. Queen Elizabeth did not like the Puritans; she was fond of many of the old Catholic forms of worship, to which they objected; and when some of them refused to attend church, because they did not like the form of service which she had ordained, they were punished.

Besides the Puritans, who wished to alter the form of worship, but not to leave the Church, there arose a small party who thought that the Church should be quite free from royal control. They held that neither the sovereign nor anybody else ought to say what people must believe, or how they must worship; but that people should be at liberty to follow their own conscience in all religious matters. They thought that each congregation should manage its own affairs, and that there should not be a State Church, or Church established by law.

Those who held these views became known as Separatists or Independents, because they separated themselves from the State Church. Towards the



A Puritan

end of Elizabeth's reign, numbers of these people sought refuge in Holland from the persecution which they suffered in England.

When James I came to the throne, the Puritans hoped that he would make some of the changes in Church matters which they desired; but they were greatly disappointed. James not only would not give way to them, but he determined to make them conform to the mode of worship and Church government which he appointed. Hundreds of clergymen who did not agree with the king, and could not obey him, were expelled from their churches.

The Independents were now still more harshly treated than they had been in Elizabeth's reign. They were few in numbers, and were so strict in their ways of life, and so scornful of all who remained in the established Church, that they were looked upon with dislike by all churchmen, whether Puritans or not.

In the year 1608, a number of Independents left England, and joined their friends in Holland. They settled in Leyden; but, being most of them country people from the eastern counties, they found town life irksome. Besides, their children, as they grew up, learned foreign ways; but the Independents still loved their native land, though they had been obliged to leave it, and they did not wish their children to become foreigners.

After a time, therefore, they desired to find a new home, where they could live together in peace, away from the temptations of town life, and where they would still keep their English character and manners. Their thoughts naturally turned to the western continent, where vast tracts of land were awaiting settlers; and they decided to go to America.

The “ Mayflower ”

Stories had reached the Independents in Holland of the hardships undergone by settlers in Virginia, the colony now established where Raleigh had years before tried to establish one. Undismayed by these stories, they made their preparations, got together their belongings, and chartered two small ships, the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*.

They crossed to England, finished their preparations at Southampton and Plymouth, and then set sail for the west. It was soon found that the *Speedwell* was unseaworthy; it put back to Plymouth, and the *Mayflower* proceeded alone on the perilous voyage, having on board a hundred persons, — men, women, and children.

The voyage lasted two months; and when the ship reached the American coast, it was at a point farther north than had been intended. The shore was bleak and barren, and offered no fit landing-place; the ship was damaged by gales; and the cold

northern winter came upon the weary voyagers before they succeeded in finding a harbor.

At length, on December 21, 1620, these heroic "Pilgrim Fathers", as their descendants love to call them, managed to land. They called the harbor where they landed New Plymouth, in memory of the last port they had touched at; and there they set up their huts, and made the first settlement in New England.

They had a hard fight before them. The country had been wasted by a pestilence; it was almost impossible to find food; and before that first winter was over, half of the little band had perished of cold, or famine, or fever.

Still they persevered, bearing misfortune with patience, and hoping for the reward of all their toil. They made friends with the Indians, and secured their help; other emigrants came with supplies from England; and, after ten years of labor and suffering, the little colony had grown to three hundred persons, and was securely established.

Meanwhile, fresh persecution had arisen in England under Archbishop Laud, and a Puritan emigration began again on a larger scale. Charles I, who was now king, granted a charter to a new colony under the name of Massachusetts Bay, and people began to swarm across the sea.

Farmers and country gentlemen, clergymen and

lawyers, God-fearing men of all classes, left their beloved country for conscience sake. In the ten years from 1630 to 1640 as many as twenty thousand Englishmen sought a home in the New World.

THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC

The Spanish Oppression

That part of Europe now called Belgium and Holland was formerly known as the Netherlands or Low Countries. It received this name because a large part of the land was below the level of the sea. In early times the country had been a swamp buried from time to time beneath the waters of the sea and of the overflowing rivers. But the hardy people who lived there beat back the ocean and bridled the rivers in their beds. This they did by building great dykes of stone and earth all along the coast, and by forming high banks along the sides of the rivers. Then they constructed canals all over the country, into which they drained the waters of the swamps and marshes. The land which was thus won back from the sea was rich and fertile, and gave the people an abundant harvest for all their toil. It was covered with gardens, orchards, and fruitful fields. In Antwerp, Rotterdam, and Amsterdam the country possessed great seaports which were rapidly taking the place of Venice and Genoa as the trading centers of the world.

The country was split up into seventeen provinces, which were more or less independent, although they usually joined together in defense of

their common interests. When the Reformation began to spread over Europe, the people in the seven northern provinces adopted the Protestant religion, and in their worship and Church government closely resembled the people of Scotland. The ten southern provinces remained on the whole faithful to the old religion.

When Charles V, Emperor of Germany, King of Spain and overlord of the Netherlands, gave up all his possessions and became a monk, the title of emperor was bestowed upon his brother, but the kingdom of Spain and the possession of the Netherlands went to his son, Philip II. This king we have already heard of as the husband of Queen Mary Tudor, and the proud ruler who sent out the great Armada for the conquest of England.

No sooner had he become king than he set up the Inquisition in the Netherlands, that pitiless court which was given the power to arrest, torture, and burn all suspected Protestants and all who



Spanish Soldier of the Period

had any dealings with them. In this way he roused against him all the northern states. He also offended the people in the south by depriving them of many of their former liberties.

For the first four years of his reign Philip remained in the Netherlands, determined to stamp out heresy before he left. But he had to depart for Spain baffled and defeated, finding, like other persecutors, that every victim of his wrath seemed to raise up half a dozen new converts.

He left the government of the provinces to his half-sister Margaret, but soon the whole country was in rebellion. Catholics and Protestants banded themselves together to demand the withdrawal of the Inquisition and freedom of worship for all the people. Margaret refused to give way, and the pent-up anger of the people found vent in terrible riots. They stormed the churches, broke the images, sacked the monasteries, and burned the libraries. The noble cathedral of Antwerp, with its priceless treasures of painting and sculpture, was the greatest sufferer, but everywhere works of art were destroyed that could never be replaced.

Philip was furious when he heard the news. He recalled the regent, Margaret, and sent in her stead the Duke of Alva, the most skillful and the most pitiless of his generals. With him Alva brought an army of 30,000 picked men, the veterans of a dozen campaigns. "I have tamed men of iron,"

Alva boasted, “and shall I not overcome these men of butter?” His first step was to set up a sort of court martial, which came to be known as the Council of Blood. During Alva’s stay in the



Antwerp Cathedral

country no fewer than 18,000 men were put to death without the slightest pretense of a trial by this cruel court. Thousands of skilled workmen sought refuge from this tyranny in England, and the weaving industry there was greatly benefited by the

immigration of large numbers of Flemings, who were far in advance of all others in the manufacture of fine fabrics.

William the Silent

But just at this moment, when the fortunes of the country were at their lowest, a leader came forward who was destined to break the yoke of Spain and to set up a new and powerful state in Europe. This was William, Prince of Orange, commonly known as William the Silent. This name gives us an indication of his character. He was reserved, self-contained, patient, and prudent. He was defeated many times, but never lost heart. On all occasions, in victory and in defeat, he bore himself so nobly that he stands out as one of the most heroic figures in the sixteenth century. He has a special interest for us as the ancestor of William of Orange, who became King of England in 1689.

He had been brought up at the Court of the Emperor Charles V, with whom he was a great favorite. He was at first a Catholic in religion, but his dislike of the persecutions and the cruelties of the "Council of Blood" led him to become a Protestant.

He was very unwilling to act against his former friends, but he was still more unwilling to allow

the liberties and lives of his countrymen to be trampled under foot by Alva. He wrote Philip of Spain imploring him to stop the massacres and restore the ancient freedom of the country, but all in vain.

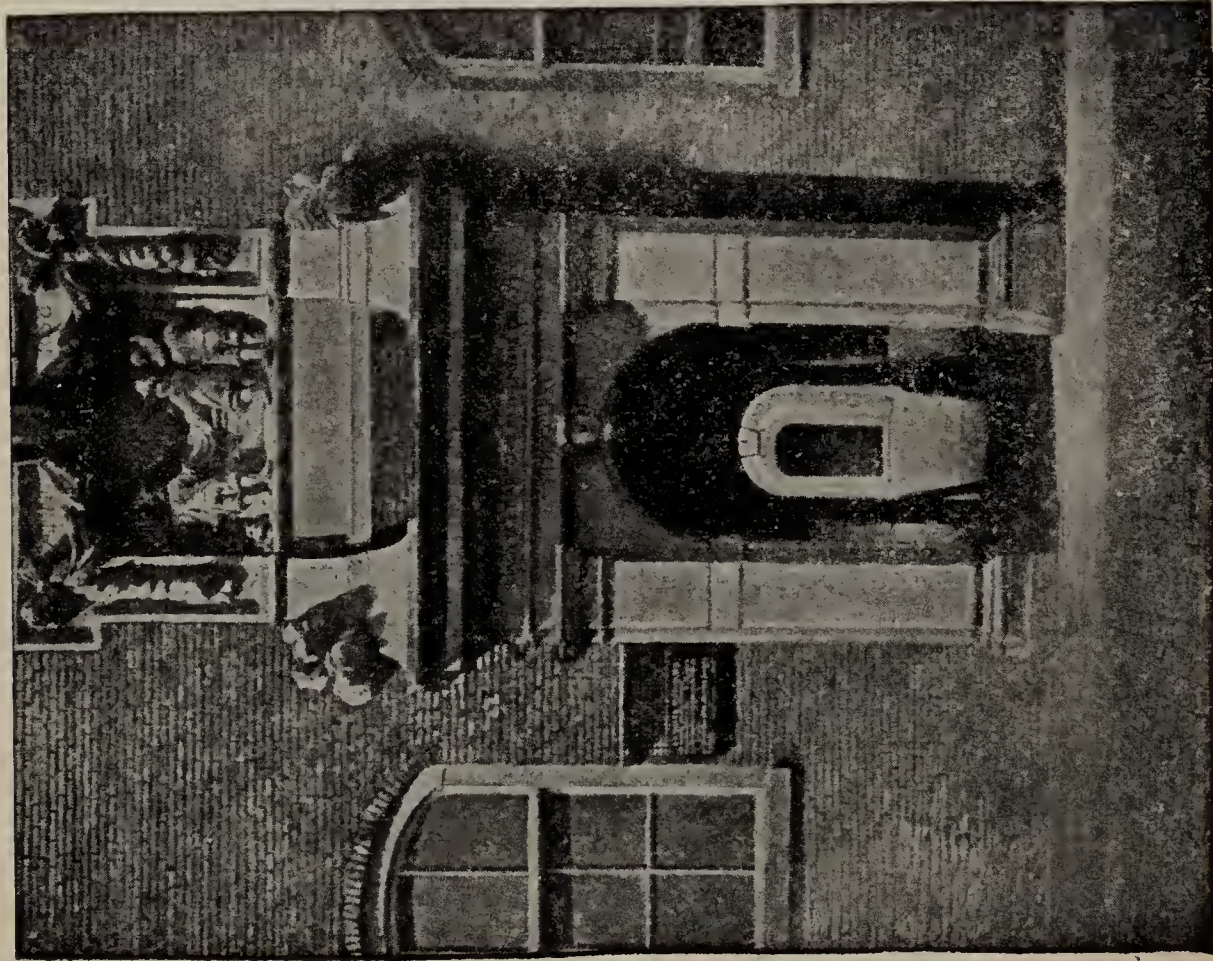
At last William took the field against the oppressors of his country, and with a force raised with the help of Elizabeth of England, the Huguenots of France, and the Protestants of Germany, he gained several small battles. But Alva surprised his forces and cut them to pieces, and William of Orange retired to France to watch events and wait for another chance.

This soon presented itself. Many of William's followers, after the defeat of his army, took to the sea, and began harassing the commerce of the Spaniards. Emboldened by some small successes, they made a sudden descent on Flushing, destroyed the Spanish garrison there, and defied all attempts to dislodge them.

This was the signal for a general rising all over the country, and William the Silent hastened from France to place himself at the



William the Silent



The Entrance

THE HOUSE AT DELFT WHERE WILLIAM THE SILENT WAS ASSASSINATED



The Staircase

head of the movement. The history of the next ten years is a record of almost endless battles, sieges, and assaults. Alva won battles and captured towns, but he could not break the spirit of the people. Rebellion was no sooner put down in one city than it broke out in another, and Alva had to begin the work of conquest over again. At last even his iron spirit saw the hopelessness of the struggle, and he begged to be recalled. The "men of butter" proved after all stronger than the man of iron.

One of the most famous incidents in the war was the defense of the city of Leyden. Alva's successor believed that if he could capture this town the revolt would be at an end, and so he determined to employ all his forces in the attempt. The Prince of Orange also felt that the fortunes of the country depended on keeping the Spaniards out of Leyden. He wrote the people of the city that the fate of the nation was in their hands, and urged them to hold out to the very last.

For nine months the siege went on. The people endured all the horrors of famine and plague, but surrender they would not. The Prince of Orange made repeated but fruitless attempts to relieve them by land. But he had still one plan in reserve that he was unwilling to use except in the last extremity.

Leyden was six miles from the sea, but the town itself and the land round about were below the

level of high tide. William resolved to cut the dykes and let the waters roll in upon the Spaniards, although he knew it meant ruin to the lands and villages between Leyden and the sea. "Better", he said, "a drowned land than a lost land." Through the openings thus made in the dykes, barges and fishing vessels laden with provisions sailed overland across the flooded fields and meadows into the streets of Leyden.

The Spaniards fought fiercely and bravely as long as they possibly could, and only when the waters threatened to overwhelm them did they slowly and reluctantly withdraw to the higher ground.

The relief of Leyden was the turning-point in the campaign. From this time onward the cause of William steadily prospered. In 1581 the northern states formed themselves into a republic with the title "The United Provinces," with William of Orange as Stadtholder or President. The southern states, which comprised more of the country now called Belgium, fell away from William and made terms with Philip. This was not surprising. The southern states were, in the main, Catholic, the northern Protestant. The people in the south spoke a dialect of French, in the north a dialect of German. Their interests, therefore, were so diverse that it is no wonder they were not able to continue together.

Philip of Spain, unable to overcome his enemy in open fight, set a price of 30,000 crowns upon his head. Four times attempts on his life were made without success, but the fifth time a fanatic shot him in his own house at Delft. Thus died in 1583 a ruler who has justly been called the "Father of his Country." For its welfare he sacrificed all that he possessed — his property, his friends, and finally his life. At the beginning of his career he was one of the richest princes of the age. When he died he did not leave enough to pay for his burial. Three of his brothers had given their lives for the cause, and all the friends of his youth had fallen in battle or by the headsman's axe. No wonder, then, that "as long as he lived he was the guiding star of a whole nation, and when he died the little children cried in the streets."

After William's death the war of independence still went on. Prince Maurice of Orange, his second son, proved himself a greater soldier even than his father, and ere he died, in 1625, the position of the young republic was firmly established. Thus ended, after a struggle of over forty years, one of the most famous wars in all history.

This long struggle had far-reaching results. The Dutch, always hardy sailors, were quick to see the importance of sea power, and one of the first acts of the new republic was to establish a strong navy. Their captains sailed the sea in every direction.

In the East Indies they seized the possessions of the Portuguese, who were at that time united with Spain, and all the rich trade of these regions passed into their hands. In the course of a few years they became the masters of the seas and the carriers of the world.

STRAFFORD AND LAUD

The Petition of Right

On June 7, in the year 1628, King Charles I gave his assent to a famous document called the Petition of Right. It was a statement, drawn up by the House of Commons, of certain rights of the English people which had not been respected by the king, but which the House declared must be respected for the future.

The Commons demanded, for example, that people should not be compelled to lend the king money, or to receive soldiers in their houses; that no person should be imprisoned without the cause being stated, or should be tried by martial law in time of peace, but should be brought before the regular judges. People had suffered in the ways thus protested against; and when the House of Commons declared that they would vote no money to the king until their demands were granted, Charles unwillingly gave his promise to that effect.

One of the leading members of the House which forced this promise from the king was Sir Thomas Wentworth. He belonged to an ancient and wealthy Yorkshire family, had been educated at Cambridge, and had suffered imprisonment for refusing to lend £40 to the king.

Charles had an unfortunate belief, encouraged by

his adviser and favorite the Duke of Buckingham, that he had a right to rule just as he pleased, and that Parliament only existed to carry out his will. There were members of Parliament, however, who thought differently. Men like John Pym and Sir John Eliot held that the king ought to govern as the nation wished, and that the wish of the nation was to be discovered by consulting the House of Commons, elected by the people.

Wentworth, though he joined Pym in drawing up the Petition of Right, did not altogether agree with him in his opinions about the mode of government. But when, little more than a month after the Petition became law, Pym and his friends heard that Wentworth, their leader, had been made a baron by the king, they were amazed. Three months later, when the baron became a viscount, entered the king's service, and was appointed President of the Council of the North, their amazement turned to indignation, since they thought that Wentworth had basely deserted them.

There is a story that one day Pym, meeting Wentworth, said to him: "You are going to leave us, I see; but we will never leave you while your head is on your shoulders."

How was it that Wentworth so suddenly changed sides? Some people think that he honestly found he could no longer agree with his old comrades; others believe that he had opposed Charles from



Parliament House

The Hall

The Abbey

Westminster at time of Charles I (after Hollar)

the first only in order to show that, since he might be dangerous as an enemy, it would be worth while to gain him as a friend. Whatever the reason was, Wentworth from that time was the king's most loyal servant.

In his office of President of the North, Wentworth was practically governor of the whole north of England. For three years he ruled with firmness, making himself hated for his pride, and for the vigor with which he compelled people to pay money to the king.

Meanwhile, the quarrel between King and Parlia-

ment grew to a dangerous height. It had been the custom, at the opening of a new reign, for the House of Commons to vote to the king, for life, a tax called tonnage and poundage. This was a tax on goods that came into and went out of the country.

The House had only granted the tax to Charles for one year, and when the year had expired, Parliament was prorogued before the tax was renewed. Without waiting for the consent of the Commons, Charles on his own account demanded payment of the tax. Several merchants who refused to pay it were thrown into prison.

This enraged the members of the House, and when they met again they proposed resolutions declaring that anyone who advised the collection of tonnage and poundage without their consent, or who paid the tax, was an enemy of the country.

Charles ordered the House to disperse, but the doors were locked, and the Speaker was held down in his chair until the resolutions were passed. The king immediately dissolved Parliament, and for eleven years ruled without one.

The Government of Ireland

After three years of energetic rule in the north of England, Wentworth was appointed by the king Governor of Ireland. That country, which had in

name belonged to England since the reign of Henry II, had in reality only been subjected to English rule in Elizabeth's reign.

It was troubled by constant rebellions, and the majority of the people, being Roman Catholics, objected to the establishment of the English Church among them. Thus Catholics and Protestants lived in deadly enmity with one another.

When Wentworth was sent to rule the island, he found it in a terrible condition. The taxes were unpaid, the army was ragged and disorderly; the Protestant churches were falling in ruins, and some were even used as stables and alehouses. Part of the money which ought to have gone to the clergy was snatched up by dishonest officials.

The trade of the country was utterly crippled by the pirates who infested the seas. The very ship which was conveying Wentworth's goods to Ireland was captured by a pirate, and the new governor lost furniture worth £4000 and linen worth £500.

Wentworth was armed with full powers, and was answerable to the king alone. He set to work with boldness and energy to bring the country into a



Sir Thomas Wentworth,
Earl of Strafford

better state. He enforced the payment of taxes by Catholics and Protestants alike; he dismissed unjust officials and reorganized the army; repaired the churches and protected the clergy; and fitted out warships which soon swept the pirates from the seas.

He improved trade, and spent much of his own money in encouraging the cultivation of flax and hemp for the manufacture of linen. In many ways he showed that he had a sincere desire for the welfare of Ireland, and a passion for order and good government.

But he made countless enemies, both in Ireland and in England. His ways were masterful; and though his aims were often right and just, he used illegal and unjust means to carry them out. He offended the Protestants by allowing the Catholics to worship in their own way; he offended many of the Catholics by declaring that their lands belonged to the king, and by bringing over Protestants to settle on them.

His great aim was to make the king all-powerful in the country, and to show both Catholics and Protestants that they must depend on the king's power for support and protection. This was the system which he nick-named "Thorough" in his letters to his friend, Archbishop Laud.

The Work of Laud

While Wentworth was winning hatred by his conduct in Ireland, the king and Archbishop Laud were exciting enmity by their doings in England. William Laud was made Archbishop of Canterbury in the same year that Wentworth crossed to Ireland.

He was a good and an able man, unselfish, and kind to the poor; his aim was a noble one — to unite all Christian people in one pure and strong church. But, like Wentworth, he tried to drive people instead of leading them; he attempted to force his own opinions on the nation, and he failed.

A great number of the clergy at this time were Puritans. They were opposed to all doctrines and ceremonies that had any resemblance to those of the Roman Catholic Church, because they thought such doctrines and ceremonies encouraged superstition. They refused to wear robes, even the plain surplice, in church; they removed stained-glass windows from the churches, would not allow organs to be used, and placed the communion table in the middle of the church instead of within rails at the east end.

Laud disagreed entirely with this course of action. He thought that the cause of true religion was aided by splendid ceremonies, by fine music and beautiful colors, which would help to give

people a feeling of awe and respect for holy things. He, therefore, with the king's permission, gave orders that all the changes made by the Puritans should be undone, and those who refused obedience were severely punished.

Two irregular courts were used to enforce the will of Charles and Laud, both in matters of religion and of everyday life. The Court of High Commission decided church matters, and fined, imprisoned, and removed clergymen who would not do as Laud wished. The Court of Star Chamber could punish any person who committed any act which the king did not like, whether that act was against the law or not.

With these two courts Charles ruled. Their

judgments were sometimes very cruel. A lawyer named Prynne had written a book against stage plays; he was sentenced by Laud in the Star Chamber to have his ears lopped, and to be imprisoned. In prison he wrote a book against the bishops, and for this he was sentenced to have the stumps of his ears cut off.



Archbishop Laud



THE HAPPIER DAYS OF CHARLES I

From the painting by F. Goodall, R.A., in the Bury Art Gallery

Treatment such as this made the name of Laud hateful to thousands of people.

During the years when there was no Parliament to vote supplies, money for carrying on the government had to be obtained by other means, and Charles levied taxes at his pleasure. One of these taxes was known as Ship-money. It was properly a tax that could only be claimed from the coast towns in time of war, but by the advice of Laud it was now demanded from inland counties and towns as well.

One country gentleman, named John Hampden, had the courage to refuse to pay the twenty shillings required of him. He took his stand on the law and custom of the country, and particularly on the Petition of Right, which forbade the levying of taxes without the consent of Parliament. The case was tried by twelve judges, of whom seven pronounced in favor of the king. Hampden was condemned, but most people held that he was in the right, and the opposition to Charles grew stronger.

Now Scotland burst into rebellion. The Scots, under the lead of John Knox, had established the Presbyterian form of religion, in which there are no bishops, but all church matters are in the hands of ministers and elders chosen from the people. Laud, not content with his work in Eng-

land, wished to make the Scottish Church the same as the English — to force the Scots to give up Presbyterianism, accept bishops, and use a new liturgy, or set service, which he had drawn up.



St. Giles's Cathedral, Edinburgh, in the Seventeenth Century

But when the new service book was read for the first time in the cathedral at Edinburgh, a riot occurred. One woman flung a stool at the head of the dean who was conducting the service. The Scots refused to have anything to do with the new arrangements; and when Charles threatened punishment, they flocked in thousands to sign a

document called the National Covenant, binding themselves to defend their religion by every lawful means.

At length it became a question of war. An English army was hastily got together to compel the Scots to obey, but the soldiers were of poor quality and the officers half-hearted and incapable. The Scots, on the other hand, were well drilled and thoroughly in earnest, and were led by Leslie, an experienced general. Charles gave way without fighting, and promised that matters should be settled by a parliament.

But the Parliament would do nothing for the king until he had removed the grievances of which they complained. Rather than yield, he dissolved Parliament, and prepared again for war with Scotland. Wentworth, now Earl of Strafford, came over from Ireland to help him; but the Scots invaded England, and drove back an English force which opposed them.

It was clear that another parliament must be called, either to satisfy the demands of the Scots with regard to their religion, or to provide means for fighting them. Accordingly, Charles issued a summons for a new parliament. It met on November 3, 1640, and is known in history as the Long Parliament, for it was not finally dispersed for twenty years.

The End of Strafford and Laud

Strafford knew that he was hated by the leaders of the Parliament, because he tried to let the king have his own way in everything. He therefore thought that it would be unwise to place himself within their reach, and wished to return to Ireland. But Charles called him to London, promising that the Parliament should not touch a hair of his head.

In the afternoon of the day after his arrival, Strafford went down to the House of Lords to take his seat. As he entered, John Pym came in by another-door at the head of a deputation from the House of Commons, announced that it had been decided to impeach Strafford, and begged for his immediate arrest. The earl was allowed to say a few words in his defense, but was sent a prisoner to the Tower, whither Laud soon followed him.

Four months later the earl was brought to trial in Westminster Hall. In an impeachment, the House of Commons is the accuser and the House of Lords the judge. Pym took the leading part in the accusation. Strafford was charged with treason, the Commons' idea of that crime being that "treason which is against the kingdom is more against the king than that which is against his person."

No doubt Strafford had acted as a harsh tyrant, and had offended against the law; but nothing that he had done could be properly called treason.

The strongest charge against him, that he had suggested the bringing over of an Irish army to subdue England, was not proved, and was probably untrue.

Strafford defended himself in a speech of remarkable power and eloquence. The last part of it, in which he pleaded for acquittal, not for his own sake, but for the sake of his innocent children, brought tears to many eyes.

Finding that, on the evidence before them, the Lords were not certain to condemn the earl, the Commons dropped the impeachment and adopted another plan. A bill of attainder, as it was called, was now brought before the House of Commons, declaring that Strafford was guilty of treason. This was passed, and then sent up to the Lords.

The earl at first felt sure that the Lords would not pass the bill. Even if they did, he could not be put to death without the consent of the king, and Charles had promised to stand by him. Charles wrote to him, "None shall hinder me from being your constant faithful friend," and "On the word of a king, you shall not suffer in life, honor, or fortune."

Not more than half the peers who had been present at the trial gave their votes, and the bill of attainder passed the Lords by a majority of only seven. Charles was then asked to give his consent to the earl's execution.

Instead of giving a determined refusal, as Strafford had the right to expect, Charles began to ask advice. The judges were timid, and hesitated; the bishops, when he told them of his promise to Strafford, told him that he had two consciences — one as a king, the other as a man; and that his conscience as a king might allow what was against his conscience as a man.

Mobs came about the palace, howling for “justice”; and at last the miserable king, fearing for the safety of his family, agreed to the execution. When Strafford heard that he was to die, he exclaimed bitterly, “Put not your trust in princes, nor in the sons of men, for in them there is no salvation,” a verse from the 146th Psalm.

“I know how to look death in the face, and the people too,” said the great man, when he was told of the furious crowd that waited to see him die. As he passed out of the Tower, he saw Archbishop Laud looking sadly from the window of his cell, and knelt down to receive his blessing.

However wrongly Strafford had acted, he had fulfilled the king’s will, and had been an able and faithful servant to his unhappy master. Charles ought never to have allowed him to be put to death, and afterwards he bitterly repented his weakness in giving way.

Four years later, Archbishop Laud met the same fate that had befallen his friend Strafford. In his

case the king could not be reproached with showing ingratitude towards a faithful servant, for Charles himself was then fighting for his life against the Parliament.

THE WARS OF RELIGION

The Thirty Years' War

We now come to the last act in the great drama which opened with Luther bidding defiance to the power of the Church of Rome. Strange to say, the Reformation in Germany was accomplished with little of the bloodshed that marked its rise in other countries. On Luther's death, civil war broke out between the Catholics and the Protestants, but it speedily came to an end by the Peace of Augsburg. According to this agreement, it was left to the ruler of each state in Germany to settle the religion that was to prevail in his own dominions. The wishes and beliefs of the people themselves counted for nothing, and they were expected to accept whatever form of worship was approved by their ruler.

On the whole, this policy worked well enough for some time, and while other nations were rent by religious and civil strife, Germany had peace and prosperity. We have already seen that Germany was not a kingdom like England, France, and Spain, but a group of semi-independent states, over whom a ruler, called the Emperor, held more or less authority according as he was a strong or a weak man. Austria, at this time, was the leading partner in the empire, and the ruler of that country usually held the title of Emperor. Austria remained faith-

ful to the Catholic faith, but the majority of the German states were Protestant.

The great civil and religious strife that devastated Germany for thirty years began in Bohemia. Nearly all the nobles and people there were Protestants, but their kings had always been Catholic. By the terms of the Peace of Augsburg the people should have accepted the religion of their sovereigns, but this the Bohemians resolutely refused to do. Attempts were made from time to time to put down freedom of worship, but none of these succeeded. At length an able and bigoted king, Ferdinand, came to the throne. His great ambition was to bring back Bohemia to the Catholic faith, and when he became ruler of Austria and Emperor of Germany in addition, he believed he was strong enough to make the attempt with good hope of success. He issued an order that all the people of Bohemia were to become Catholics or to leave his dominions, and appointed regents to see that his orders were carried out during his absence in other parts of the empire.

This decree was the signal for a general rising all over Bohemia. A band of nobles entered the town hall of Prague, the capital, and threw the unpopular regents of the emperor out of the topmost window. They then declared that Ferdinand had forfeited the crown, and in 1618 elected in his stead Frederick, Elector Palatine of the Rhine, the son-



Ferdinand II, King of Hungary and
Bohemia

in-law of James I of England. The Catholic princes came to the support of Ferdinand, while most of the Protestant princes took up the cause of Frederick.

In the war that followed, Ferdinand and the Catholic League were at first uniformly successful. Frederick was de-

feated at the battle of Prague, and compelled to flee from Bohemia after a reign of less than six months. His own dominions on the Rhine were seized by a Catholic prince, Maximilian of Bavaria, and Frederick had to take refuge in Holland, where he died.

The success of the Catholics was chiefly due to the ability of their generals, Tilly and Wallenstein. At this time no country kept up a standing army. When a war was about to begin, each ruler gave orders to his generals to enroll as many soldiers as they could find. The greater the fame of any leader, the greater the numbers that flocked to his standard in the hope of sharing in the rich booty



By permission of Franz Hanfstaengl

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS'S PRAYER BEFORE THE BATTLE OF LÜTZEN

From the painting by Louis Braun

that fell to victorious armies. In this way Tilly and Wallenstein raised great armies.

Tilly, who led the forces of the Catholic League, had gained a great name as a general in the wars against the Turks. Wallenstein was a Bohemian nobleman who had taken the lead in putting down the revolt in his native country, and so had won the favor of the emperor and great possessions for himself. Wallenstein offered to raise for Ferdinand an army which would cost him nothing. His plan was to gather together, by offers of liberal pay, a band of soldiers whom he would support by pillaging and plundering the countries through which he passed. Ferdinand made him leader of all the imperial troops, and Wallenstein quickly collected an army of 40,000 men, largely made up of the ruffians and adventurers of Europe.

The King of Denmark came to the help of his Protestant brethren in Germany. Aided by money from England and the



Charles IV, King of
Denmark

Netherlands, he raised a large army and at first gained some small successes. But Tilly and his trained troops completely defeated him and overran his territories. The Danish king was then glad to come to terms with the Emperor, engaging to give no further help to the Protestants of Germany.

Wallenstein, meanwhile, had swept over the Protestant states of Germany like a destroying hurricane. The Baltic States were the stronghold of Protestantism, and upon these Wallenstein fell with relentless fury. All the chief cities were captured and the inhabitants put to the sword. Stralsund, at this time the most important seaport on the Baltic, alone held out against him. Wallenstein declared he would take it "even if it were fastened by chains to Heaven." Encouraged by help from the King of Sweden, and by the presence of a band of Scottish soldiers under General Alexander Leslie (afterwards leader of the Scots in the Civil War), the town successfully resisted all assaults. After a ten weeks' siege Wallenstein was compelled to retreat with great loss.

The Lion of the North

Meanwhile the other nations of Europe were looking on with dismay at the growing power of Ferdinand. France feared that once the German states had been conquered, the forces of the

Emperor would next be directed against her. The great Cardinal Richelieu, minister of Louis XIII, made a treaty with Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, promising to give him £1,200,000 a year if he took the field against Ferdinand and in support of the Protestant princes.

Gustavus Adolphus, “ the Lion of the North ”, as he was called, was still a young man, but from the time he was seventeen years of age he had led armies and spent most of his time on the tented field. He was a sincere Protestant, a man of simple manners and of childlike faith in God’s goodness and providence. He had long desired to come to the aid of his fellow worshipers in Germany, but wars with Russia, Poland, and Denmark had taken up all his energies. These wars were now at an end, and, encouraged by the promises of French aid, he landed in 1630 with 16,000 veteran troops at Stralsund. Amongst these were many English and Scottish volunteers who, attracted by the fame and chivalry of the young king, had crossed over to join his standard.

The emperor at this time had no troops in North Germany, as the Catholic leaders had persuaded him to dismiss Wallenstein and to disband his army because of his cruel and barbarous way of waging war. Gustavus Adolphus therefore met with no opposition as he marched south into the heart of Germany.



Gustavus Adolphus

The Protestant princes, jealous of one another and distrustful of foreigners, refused to come to his aid, fearing thereby to bring upon themselves the wrath of the hitherto invincible Emperor. The northern king tried reproaches, entreaties, threats, but

all in vain. Meanwhile Magdeburg was closely besieged by Tilly's army, and Gustavus dared not advance to its relief till he had secured the support of his Protestant allies. At last news came that Magdeburg was fallen and was sacked with a cruelty which stands out even among all the horrors of the Thirty Years' War.

The terrible fate of Magdeburg alarmed the Protestant princes, and they now hastened to join the standard of Gustavus Adolphus. As the combined army advanced south, the Emperor said, "The Snow King will soon melt when he comes to the sunny South". But he soon found his mistake. Tilly with a great army opposed the Swedish advance at Breitenfeld near Leipzig. The imperial

army was utterly routed, leaving on the field of battle 12,000 slain, 7000 prisoners, and all its artillery.

Tilly quickly raised another army, and taking up a strong position on the banks of the Lech, a tributary of the Danube, sought to keep the army of Gustavus from crossing into Austria. But the Swede drove them headlong from their defenses, and Tilly was slain.

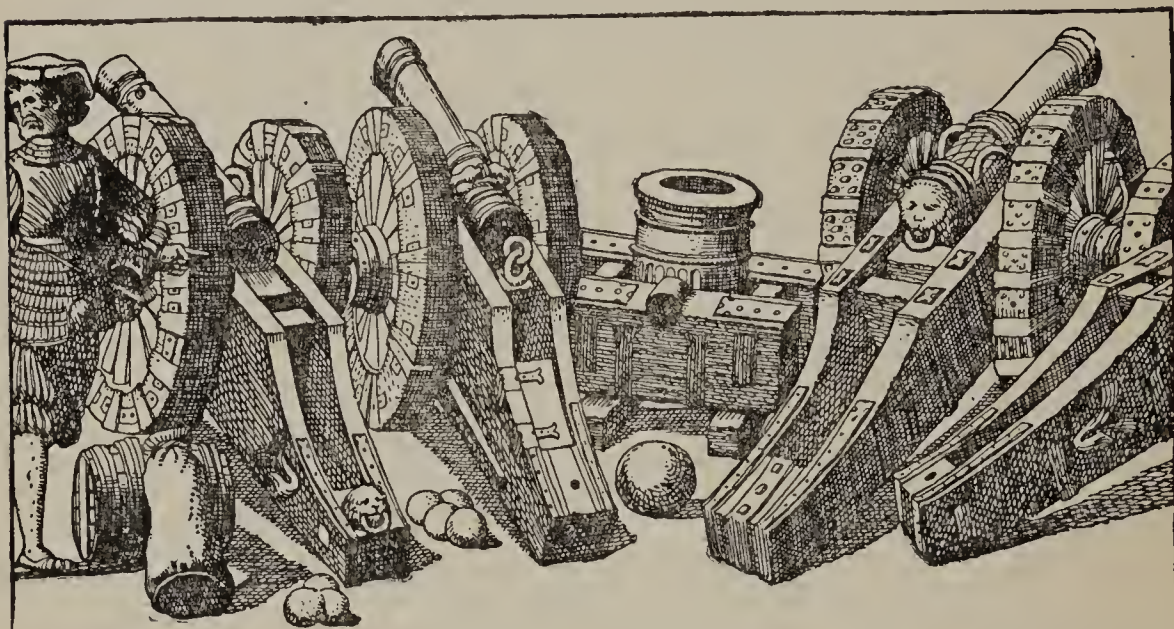
All Germany now lay at the mercy of Gustavus, who used his power with justice and mercy. He would not allow his men to plunder and ill-treat the people as Wallenstein and Tilly had done, and he allowed freedom of worship to everyone.

In his despair the Emperor Ferdinand turned to his old general Wallenstein, whom he had treated so ungratefully. Wallenstein agreed to take the field again, but only on conditions that made him almost the equal of the Emperor himself.

The two great generals, neither of whom had ever known defeat, met at Lutzen in Saxony in 1632. The Swedes bowed in prayer before beginning the fight, and then sang Luther's battle hymn, "A safe stronghold our God is still". The battle which followed was long and doubtful. In the end the Swedes won, but only after many desperate charges, in one of which the great Gustavus Adolphus fell mortally wounded. His followers, learning of the

death of their beloved king, charged with such fury upon the enemy, that they scattered them in headlong flight.

The death of Gustavus was, however, worse than a defeat. He was one of the greatest generals that ever led an army; without him the Swedes were no



Cannon used in the Thirty Years' War

longer invincible. They marched northward to the Baltic provinces and still maintained the struggle there, but no longer played a chief part in the war.

The French, who under Richelieu had secretly aided the Protestant princes, now came openly to their help. Under Marshal Turenne, the greatest of French generals, they gained many victories and laid waste the territory of the Catholic kings. These at last were glad to sue for peace, and in

1648 the long war was ended by the Treaty of Westphalia. By this treaty each state was left free to choose its own form of religion. Sweden was given territories in North Germany, and France obtained the rich province of Alsace.

It is hardly possible to picture the wretched condition of Germany at the close of this war. When the war began, the population of the country was thirty millions; when it ended, twelve millions. Vast districts lay waste without a single inhabitant, and once flourishing towns were reduced to ruins. Trade and commerce had almost ceased to exist, education was unknown, and the gloom of the Dark Ages seemed to have settled upon the land. Only after the lapse of two generations did the country begin to show signs of recovery.

THE GREAT REBELLION

Affair of the Five Members

When Strafford was dead, the House of Commons set to work to compel Charles to govern as it wished. Ship-money was declared to be against the law, taxes were not to be levied without the consent of Parliament; the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission were abolished, and the ceremonies which Laud had restored to the church service were forbidden.

Now a terrible massacre took place in Ireland, where the downtrodden Irish rose up against the English and Scottish settlers. England was filled with horror, and the king was blamed for the state of affairs which had produced the massacre.

The Commons drew up the Grand Remonstrance, a document in which they stated the acts of misrule of which they complained, and demanded certain changes in the government of Church and State. The Remonstrance was passed, only after a long discussion, by a majority of eleven; and when the king's party raised a protest against printing it, a scene of violence took place in the House. Many of the members drew their swords, and bloodshed was prevented only by the influence of Hampden.

Charles consented to have the Remonstrance read to him; but soon after he ordered the attorney-

general to impeach five members of the House of Commons, including Pym and Hampden, as well as one of the peers. He charged them with a treasonable correspondence with the Scottish army during the recent troubles, and demanded their immediate arrest.

Such a demand from the king was illegal, and the Commons merely replied that they would consider it. Next day Charles was persuaded by his queen to go down to the House himself and arrest the members by force. "Go along, you coward," she said, "and pull those rascals out by the ears!"

With five hundred armed gentlemen, the king went down to the House of Commons. Leaving his company in Westminster Hall, he entered the House, and, standing by the Speaker's chair, said that he must have the men whom he accused. There was dead silence. The king asked, "Is Mr. Pym here?" but not a word was spoken in reply.

He then turned to the Speaker, and asked whether the



William Lenthall, Speaker of the
House of Commons

five members were present. The Speaker fell on his knees and replied, "May it please your Majesty, I have neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak in this place, except as the House is pleased to direct me". "Well, well," Charles cried angrily, "'tis no matter, I think my eyes are as good as another's."

Carefully looking along the benches, he saw that not one of the five was present: they had gone for safety to the city. With an angry flush on his cheeks, the baffled king said, "Since I see that my birds are flown, I do expect from you that you will send them to me as soon as they return hither; otherwise I must take my own course to find them".

As he left the House, angry shouts of "Privilege, privilege!" burst from the members. The sheriffs of London refused to give up the five members, who, a few days later, returned to Westminster by the river, amid the cheers of thousands of spectators who lined the banks.

The train-bands or volunteers of London took up arms in defense of the liberty of the Commons. The friends of Charles feared for their lives and fled. He had no army, and the queen left the country with the crown jewels, to buy arms and raise money with which to pay soldiers. Charles left London, summoning all loyal subjects to his aid. Nobles and gentlemen came gaily at his call, and on August 22,

1642, the royal standard was set up at Nottingham, and civil war began.

Oliver Cromwell Appears

The country was now divided into two great parties. The west and the north were for Charles, the east and the south, with London, for the Parliament. On the king's side were most of the lords and country gentlemen; some who considered that he was in the right, some who thought that he was in the wrong, but supported him simply because he was their sovereign. Among them, too, were some who cared nothing about the rights of the quarrel, but were gay, gallant gentlemen, who loved fighting and hated the Puritans.

On the side of the Parliament there were a few peers and some country gentlemen, but a great many townsmen and farmers; the Parliament had the wealth of the trading classes at its back. The king's party carried the nickname of "Cavaliers" and his opponents were commonly known as "Roundheads".

After a skirmish in Yorkshire, Charles set out with his army for the south. If he could only get possession of London, with all its wealth, he thought that success would speedily crown his cause. He was met at Edgehill in Warwickshire by the army of the Parliament under the Earl of Essex.

At first the battle inclined in favor of the Royalists; Prince Rupert, the king's nephew, carried all before him with his fine troop of horse. Dashing in pursuit of the flying enemy, he left the king's foot soldiers to be cut to pieces by the cavalry of the Parliament; and when he returned it was too late to win the battle, though he prevented it from becoming a total loss.

Charles now pressed rapidly on toward London, and reached Brentford, only a few miles from the city. Here he was met by the train-bands in full force — a strong, determined, well-led army. Fearing to risk a fight, the king fell back on Oxford, and made that city his headquarters.

There was among the officers of the Parliamentary army a captain of horse named Oliver Cromwell. Born in 1599, of good birth and means, he had lived since his nineteenth year the quiet life of a gentleman farmer. He was a member of the Parliament which passed the Petition of Right; but when that Parliament was dissolved, he returned to his home at Huntingdon, and took no further part in public life for twelve years.

He was an honest and upright man, a Puritan in his beliefs, but not so hard and stern as some of his party; he was a loving son, husband, and father; and was filled with a burning desire to help all who were desolate and oppressed. When the great



OLIVER CROMWELL AT THE STORMING OF BASING HOUSE

From the painting by Ernest Crofts, R.A., in the Leeds Art Gallery

struggle began, he raised a troop of horse for the Parliament.

At the very opening of the war Cromwell saw at once what was needed to give victory to his party, and he mentioned his ideas to John Hampden, who was his cousin and commanded a regiment of foot soldiers. "Your troops," he said, "are most of them old, decayed serving-men, and tapsters, and such kind of fellows; the king's troops are gentlemen's sons and persons of quality. Do you think that the spirit of such base, mean fellows will ever be able to encounter gentlemen, that have honor and courage and resolution in them? You must get men of a spirit that is likely to go on as far as gentlemen will go, or else you will be beaten still." What sort of spirit this was, Cromwell tells us in his own words: "I raised such men as had the fear of God before them, as made some conscience of what they did; and from that day forward they were never beaten".

He drilled his men constantly in the use of arms and the management of their horses, and kept them under strict discipline. If a man swore, he paid a fine of a shilling; if he got drunk, he was put in the stocks; if he called one of his mates a Roundhead, he was dismissed. Cromwell's troop, his "lovely company", as he called it, became known as a splendid body of sober, well-trained, obedient sol-

diers, and it was these men who gave victory to the Parliament.

Cromwell soon gained a high place in the army. He threw himself heart and soul into his new work; no one was more able in planning, more active in doing.

He did not spare his own relatives in his zeal for collecting arms and stores. Once he visited his uncle, Sir Oliver Cromwell, "with a good strong party of horse. He asked him for his blessing, and the few hours he was there he would not keep on his hat in his uncle's presence. But at the same time he not only disarmed but plundered him, for he took away all his plate."

Success of the "New Model"

For a year the war went on without decisive success for either party. Both Royalists and Roundheads won and lost battles, and famous men were killed on both sides.

At a skirmish at Chalgrove, in Oxfordshire, John Hampden received a mortal wound, and died murmuring, "Save my bleeding country!" At the first battle of Newbury, in Berkshire, Lord Falkland, a Royalist — wise, noble, and of beautiful character — was killed in the thick of the fight, a prayer for peace on his lips.

A Scottish army now came to the assistance of the Parliament, but would only lend its aid on condition that the Presbyterian form of religion should be established in England. This was agreed to, and the English leaders signed a formal document called the Solemn League and Covenant, promising to support Presbyterianism.

With the aid of the Scots, the army of the Parliament won a great victory at Marston Moor, near York. Cromwell and his Ironsides scattered the cavalry of Prince Rupert like dust before them. "We never charged without routing the enemy," wrote Cromwell. "God made them as stubble to our swords."

The north of England was now in the power of the Parliament; but its armies did not follow up their successes. There was a growing division among the Parliamentary party. The Presbyterians, who formed the majority of the Parliament, wished to make terms with the king without utterly crushing him; the Independents, led by Cromwell, thought that no peace should be made until Charles was thoroughly beaten.

While there was disagreement of this kind, success was impossible; Cromwell therefore carried through Parliament the Self-denying Ordinance, by which no member of either House could hold command in the army. At the same time the army was remodeled, and the "New Model", as it was

now called, was placed under the command of Sir Thomas Fairfax.

By means of the Self-denying Ordinance and the New Model, the control of the army was taken from the Presbyterians and given to the Independents, and the war was carried on with more spirit and vigor. Cromwell, though a member of the Commons, was placed second in command.

The whole army was now formed on the same plan that Cromwell had adopted with his own Ironsides, and England has never had finer troops. At Naseby, the New Model army inflicted a crushing defeat on the king, capturing 5000 prisoners, all his guns and baggage, and his private papers.

Cromwell and Fairfax then marched from place to place, storming castles, taking towns, and forcing Royalist armies to surrender. Charles wandered about the country, trying in vain to collect a new force large enough to take the field. At length he gave himself up to the Scots at Newark, hoping to win them over to his side.

The Presbyterian majority of Parliament, anxious to bring the war to a conclusion, offered Charles the terms on which they would restore him to his kingdom. He was to give Parliament the control of the army for twenty years, to sign the Covenant, and to support the Presbyterian form of worship.

For six months he declined to make any definite answer to these demands, hoping that his enemies

would quarrel among themselves. Then the Scots, weary of his delay, gave him up to the Parliament in return for the payment of their war expenses, and returned to their own country.

Fall of the King

What Charles had hoped for, a quarrel between the Army and the Parliament, at length broke out with bitterness. The Army, which consisted mainly of Independents, was determined to win full religious freedom; the Parliament was equally determined to allow no religion but the Presbyterian to be followed.

The Parliament ordered the Army to be disbanded; but the soldiers refused to disperse until their demands were satisfied. Then Cromwell took a bold step: he sent Cornet Joyce, with a strong body of horse, to remove the king from Holmby House, where he was lodging under the charge of the commissioner of the Parliament.

Having the king now in its power, the Army left him at Newmarket, and marched towards London. Its demand for an immediate settlement of the kingdom being refused, it entered the city in splendid array, and then the House of Commons yielded to its show of force.

For months Cromwell tried to induce the king to make terms with the Army; but Charles, while pre-

tending to be ready to discuss an arrangement, was really determined to yield nothing, and to get back all his former power.

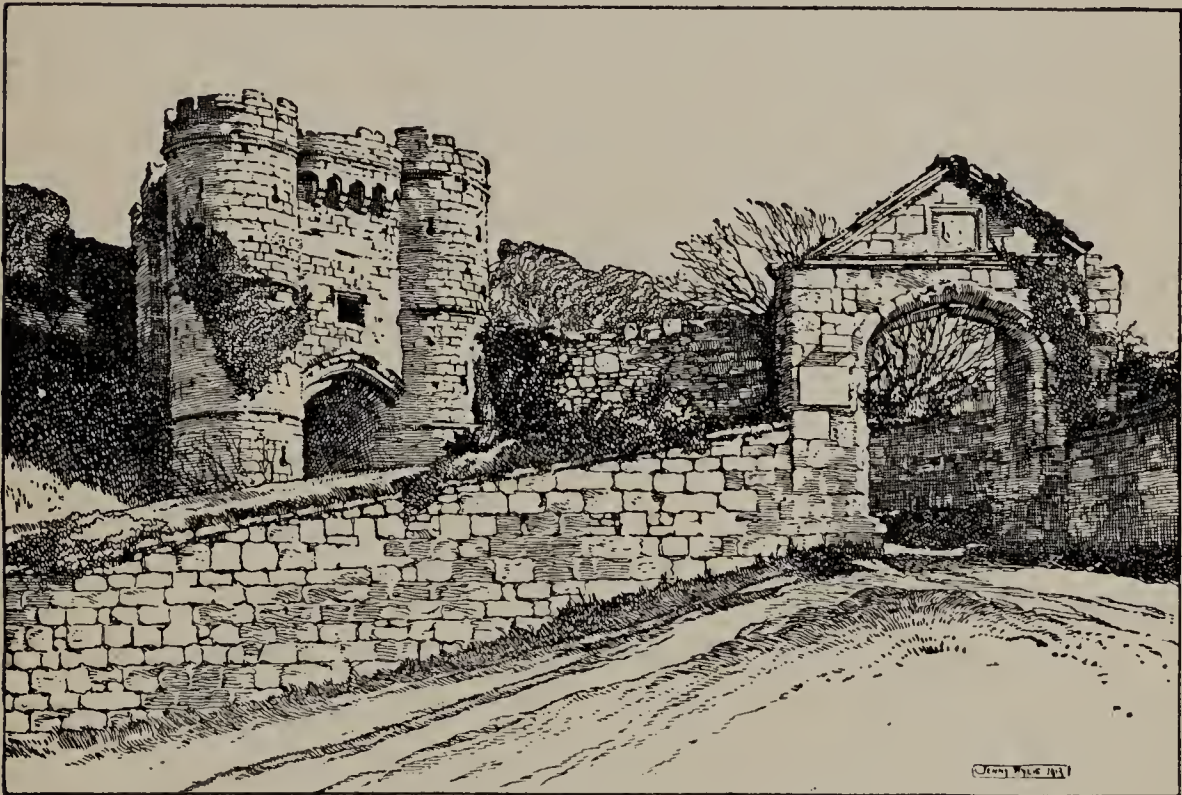
Contriving to escape from his guards, he sought refuge in the Isle of Wight. When he was again captured, and lodged in Carisbrooke Castle, he made a secret treaty with the Scots, in which he promised to establish the Presbyterian worship in England for three years, and to put down the Independents.



One of Cromwell's "Ironsides"

On these terms the Scots took up arms for the king. At the same time the Cavaliers were mustering in various parts of the country; north and west and south men raised the cry, "For God and King Charles!"

Burning with anger at what they considered the trickery of the king, the soldiers of the Parliament



Carisbrooke Castle, Isle of Wight

buckled on their armor, with the fierce resolve, first to vanquish the enemy, then to bring to trial "Charles Stuart, that man of blood", whose conduct had caused a renewal of the war.

South, west, and north their generals hastened. Cromwell met the Scots at Preston in Lancashire,

and, in a battle lasting over three days, he cut to pieces a fine army three times the size of his own. Everywhere the Cavaliers were crushed. But when Cromwell hurried back to London, he found the Presbyterian Parliament again striving to make dishonorable terms with the king, and threatening the Independents with punishment. This he determined to prevent.

One morning, a regiment of foot soldiers under Colonel Pride marched into Westminster Hall, and arrested forty-one Presbyterian members of the House of Commons. Next day more than sixty others were arrested, and "Pride's Purge", as this act was called, made the Army absolute master of the country.

The remnant of the Commons, known as the "Rump", consisted of only fifty-three Independents. They immediately passed a resolution to bring Charles to justice, and appointed a High Court of Justice for his trial. When the Lords refused to take any part in it, the Commons declared that, being chosen by the people, they themselves held supreme power in the country, and that their decisions had the force of law.

Charles was now brought to London and put on his trial in Westminster Hall, as a tyrant, a traitor, and an enemy of the people.

Last Days of the King

The proceedings of the Rump Parliament were entirely illegal. No subject had the right to call the sovereign to account for his actions; no decision of the House of Commons could become law unless agreed to by the Lords and by the king.

In bringing Charles to trial, the leaders of the Army were committing a greater offense against strict law than ever Charles had committed. But the king had shown himself to be incapable of ruling wisely; he had acted as a tyrant; when he might have made a fair settlement, he engaged in underhand proceedings, and brought the horrors of war again on the country.

The worst of it was that Charles believed himself to be thoroughly in the right, even when he was most deceitful. He thought he was justified in any course which would restore him to his throne and crush the rebels.

Cromwell, finding that it was impossible to trust Charles, believed that he would be doing God's will, and securing happiness to the nation, by taking the king's life. The trial was a mockery from the beginning; it was decided beforehand that the king should die.

When the names of the men who were to form the court were read out, only sixty-seven out of a hundred and thirty-five answered. Lady Fairfax,

when her husband's name was called; cried out: "He is not here, and never will be; you do wrong to name him". Many of those who had fought most stoutly against their king shrank from taking his life.

When Charles was asked what answer he had to the charges brought against him, he refused to plead, denying that the court had any authority over him. On the fifth day of the trial he was sentenced to death, and four days later the sentence was carried out.

The scaffold was erected outside one of the windows of the king's Banqueting House at Whitehall. Excited crowds filled the streets; the roofs and windows of the surrounding houses were occupied by spectators.

As the unhappy king mounted the steps of the scaffold, many of the people, and even some of the rough soldiers on guard, burst into tears. The king's quiet fearlessness and dignity moved everyone to pity.

Declaring that the war had been caused by those who had rebelled against his authority, and that he was dying a martyr for his people, Charles laid his head on the block. At one blow it was struck off, and as the headsman lifted it, crying, in the customary way, "This is the head of a traitor!" a deep groan rose from the multitude below.

Charles Stuart's misgovernment thus led him to



By permission of Messrs. Hildesheimer

CHARLES I ON HIS WAY TO EXECUTION

From the painting by Ernest Crofts, R.A.

a terrible end; but after his death, people's thoughts dwelt rather upon his good qualities than upon his bad ones. They remembered that in his home life he was one of the best men who ever wore the crown of England; and that he had the misfortune to come early in life under bad influences.

They forgot his weakness, his deceit, his wrong-headedness, and admired the kingly manner in which he met his fate. "He nothing common did, or mean, upon that memorable scene", wrote a poet of the time. The Cavaliers honored his memory as that of a martyr, and the nation soon learned to abhor those whom they called his murderers.



The "George" or Badge of the Order of the Knights of the Garter,
worn by Charles I at his Execution

OLIVER CROMWELL

Cromwell's Last Victories



Oliver Cromwell

King Charles was dead, and the chief men among his enemies so hated the name of king that they pronounced it treason to give anyone that title. The House of Lords was abolished; the country was declared to be a republic, under the title of the Commonwealth; and the

government was put into the hands of a Council of State.

There was one man who stood far above all others in ability and strength of character, and to whom the country looked for security and peace. That man was Oliver Cromwell, the victor of Marston Moor, Naseby, and Preston. It was soon necessary for him to put forth all his power in defense of the new government.

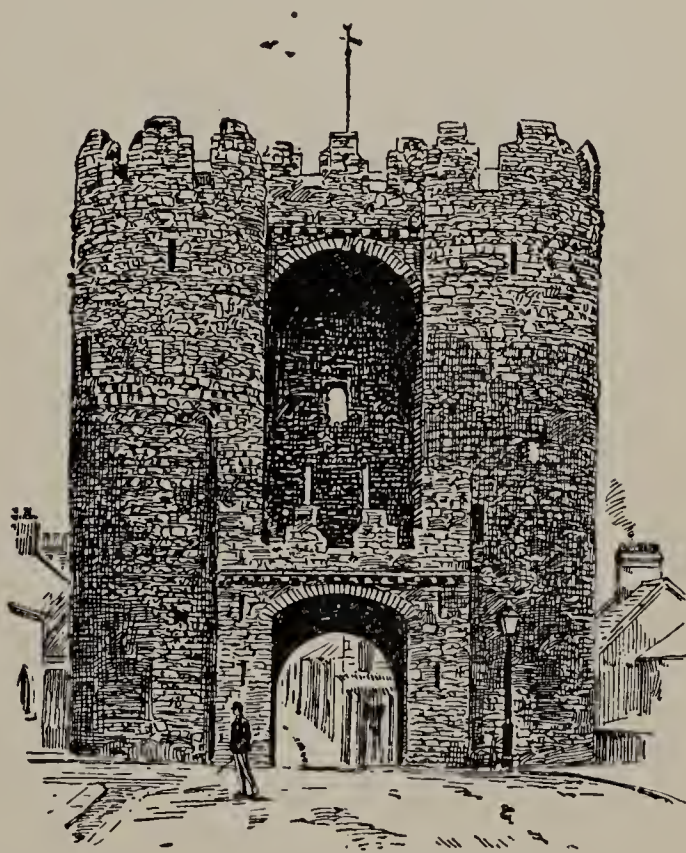
The people of Ireland had risen in arms on behalf of Charles, the eldest son of the late king, and Prince Rupert had gone to their aid with a fleet.

Cromwell instantly made ready for war; after sternly putting down a mutiny among his troops, he crossed the Irish Channel with a small but well-trained army.

For nine months he remained in Ireland, and made his name a terror throughout the land. The flower of the Royalist army was stationed at Drogheda, a fortified seaport on the Boyne. After a stout resistance the place was taken by storm, and the whole of the garrison, and many of the inhabitants, were ruthlessly massacred.

A similar massacre took place at Wexford. Fort after fort surrendered to the pitiless conqueror, and the severity of his measures speedily put an end to the rebellion. A few years later hundreds of Irish landowners were removed from their lands, which were then given to English settlers.

Having subdued Ireland, Cromwell was recalled to lead an army against Scotland,



St. Laurence's Gate, Drogheda (one of the two gates left standing by Cromwell)

where Prince Charles had accepted the Covenant and been proclaimed king. The Scottish army, under a skilled general, David Leslie, laid waste the south of the country before the invaders, and took up a strong position at Edinburgh, from which it was impossible to dislodge it.

The English army suffered severely from the bad weather, lack of food, and sickness; and Cromwell at length, almost despairing of success, withdrew to Dunbar, to be near his ships that were lying off the coast. Leslie immediately posted his army on the hills to the south, thus cutting off Cromwell's retreat to England, and placing the English at such disadvantage that defeat seemed certain.

Late one evening the Scots, impatient to secure the victory they believed to be theirs, began to move down the hill towards the shore, intending to make a grand attack on the English left wing. "The Lord hath delivered them into our hands!" cried Cromwell, as he saw the movement.

The Scots were exposing themselves to danger as they left their secure position on the hill. At dawn, September 3, 1650, Cromwell fell upon them with both foot and horse, and, before the sun had burst through the morning mist that hung over the fields, the Scots were flying in all directions.

A severe illness prevented Cromwell from following up his great victory at Dunbar. Meanwhile Charles had collected a fresh army and made a dashing march into England, hoping that the Eng-

lish Royalists would flock to his standard, and help him to win his kingdom. Few obeyed his call; and, when Cromwell came up with him at Worcester, the royal troops were disheartened by lack of support, and tired out by rapid marches.

On the anniversary of the victory at Dunbar, Cromwell's troops forced their way into Worcester after a siege of five days. With the loss of only 200 men, Cromwell won a brilliant and decisive victory; it was what he called his "crowning mercy", and the last battle that he ever fought.

Many stories are told of the adventures of Prince Charles after the battle. For days he remained hidden in an oak, from whose leafy shade he watched the Roundhead troopers as they rode about seeking him. Then he escaped to Bristol in the disguise of a servant, riding on horseback with a lady sitting on a cushion behind, as was then the fashion.

After several narrow escapes he succeeded in reaching France; and he remained quietly abroad till his people called him home.

Cromwell Becomes Protector

When Cromwell returned to London after crushing the Royalists at Worcester, he was received as a popular hero; Parliament gave him Hampton Court Palace as a residence, and voted him an

annual sum of \$20,000, equal to \$200,000 as values now are.

Soon, however, a conflict arose between the General and the Parliament. The government of the country had not yet been properly settled, and there was much discontent among the people. The Parliament, consisting as we have seen of the small body known as the "Rump", did not now truly represent the nation, but it nevertheless wished to hold supreme power, and especially to obtain control of the army.

Cromwell and his officers demanded a new parliament, which would set about the reforms necessary for the good of the country. Some of the leaders of the House, while deciding for a new parliament, resolved to pass a bill which would allow the present members not only to retain their seats, but also to reject any new member of whom they might disapprove.

With a company of musketeers Cromwell marched to the House, and took his seat while the bill was being discussed. Presently he rose and made a long and angry speech against it. He charged the members with injustice; he said that they thought more of their own interests than of the good of the country.

One of the members complaining of his harsh language, Cromwell left his seat, clapped on his hat, walked up and down the floor of the House stamp-



Mace of House
of Commons.
New head and
base made in
1660

ing with his feet, and cried out: “ You are no parliament, I say you are no parliament. Come, come, we have had enough of this: I will put an end to your prating. Call them in! ”

Thirty of his musketeers marched in, and turned out the members. Going up to the mace that lay on the table, “ What shall we do with this bauble? ” he cried. “ Here, take it away,” and gave it to a musketeer.

The Speaker was dragged from his chair; fifty-three members were turned out, Cromwell reproaching them with bitter words as they went. When the House was cleared the doors were locked, and Cromwell went home with the keys in his pocket. “ When I went to the House,” said he, “ I did not think to have done this; but perceiving the Spirit of God strong upon me, I would no longer consult flesh and blood.” Thus was achieved the famous expulsion of the Long Parliament.

Cromwell now called a council of 140 members — men chosen by himself for their godliness. They began to work with such vigor, and at the same time with such imprudence, that bitter opposition

was aroused in the country, and they soon resigned their powers.

A few days later army officers drew up a document called the Instrument of Government, by which Cromwell was made Lord Protector. He was



Reverse of Second Great Seal of the Commonwealth, 1651
An interesting representation of the House of Commons at that period

to govern with the assistance of a council, and to summon Parliament every three years. Parliament alone was to have the power to levy taxes, and any bill passed by it was to become law after twenty days, with or without the Protector's assent. Par-

liament was to meet every year, and could not be dissolved until it had sat for at least five months.

This famous document shows that Cromwell's idea of government was much like that of Strafford; he believed in government by one person with the assistance of a parliament, and not in a system which gives Parliament the whole power.

England's Greatness Under Cromwell

For five years Cromwell was the ruler of the Commonwealth of England, and under his strong hand the country rose to a height of greatness and power it had never reached before. Trade increased, order was preserved, justice was done; learning and science were encouraged; men were not cruelly punished for their religious beliefs; and the money of the nation was prudently spent.

Abroad, too, England began to be feared and respected for her strong government. A war broke out with the Dutch, because England passed a Navigation Act, requiring that imports should be brought to the country in English vessels. The Dutch were then known as the carriers for the world — their ships carried goods for every nation — and this Act injured their trade.

In the war Admiral Blake won several splendid victories over the most brilliant of Dutch admirals, Van Tromp and De Ruyter; and the peace which

was concluded was to the advantage of England. From that time the power of the Dutch declined, and England gradually rose to the proud position of mistress of the seas.

Now, too, the haughty Spaniards again began to dread the daring of English seamen. Cromwell demanded that English merchants should be allowed to pursue their trade freely in the Spanish colonies, without fear of the cruelties of the Inquisition. When this was refused, Cromwell sent an army to Flanders to help France in the great war then being waged in the Low Countries against Spain, and the French generals declared that Cromwell's troops were the finest in the world.

An English fleet was sent to seize San Domingo in the West Indies, in revenge for the seizure of English islands by Spain. The attempt failed, but the island of Jamaica was captured, and has remained ever since the chief of England's West Indian possessions.

Meanwhile Blake had sailed to the Mediterranean and bombarded Tunis—the headquarters of the pirates who infested the seas and made descents upon the English and Irish coasts. The forts and the pirate fleet were destroyed, and hundreds of English and Dutch captives were set free from slavery.

Then Blake sailed for the harbor of Santa Cruz, in the Canaries, where the great Spanish treasure



Admiral Blake

fleet had taken shelter. The harbor was strongly fortified, and huge ships of war guarded the rich fleet within; but in spite of shot and shell Blake forced his way in, sunk or burned every ship in the harbor, and sailed out again in safety in the teeth of a gale.

Not many weeks afterwards, part of Blake's fleet fell in with some treasure ships returning to Spain across the Atlantic. The English fought and captured the ships of Spain; soon after the Londoners cheered with delight as they saw thirty-eight wagons, loaded with the Spaniards' silver, pass through the streets of the city.

By the aid of the English troops, the French won brilliant successes against Spain in the Low Countries. Dunkirk was captured, and was handed over to the English in reward for their services. Cromwell was recognized by all Europe as a great statesman and a mighty prince, and the world was filled with the glory of his successful rule.

Cromwell's Difficulties and Death

While glorious abroad and prosperous at home, England was not really contented and happy. The rule of the Puritans was too strict for the majority

of the people: theaters were shut up; innocent sports were forbidden; and the beautiful service of the English Church, which so many of the people loved, was not allowed to be used.

Cromwell himself, serious as he was, was not so gloomy and severe as many of the Puritans. He loved music, and placed an organ in his residence at Hampton Court. He loved books, and collected a fine library; he prevented the destruction of some splendid pictures which otherwise might have been lost to the world.

Like all great men, he had many enemies; not only among the Royalists, but even among his own party. Many were jealous of his power, and some thought him a great tyrant. He himself believed that he had been called by God to rule England, and he could not put up with the opposition which Parliament sometimes raised against him.

His first parliament, instead of applying itself to various important matters to which Cromwell directed its attention, began to wrangle about the mode of government. Cromwell dissolved Parliament at once; then, as insurrections began to spring up, he divided England into twelve military districts, which he placed under the charge of twelve major-generals.

For twenty months no parliament met, and the country lay under martial law — one of the very things which had been condemned in the Petition

of Right. Then Cromwell summoned a new parliament, which, as soon as it met, offered him the title of king. This he declined, because the officers of the army, on whom he depended, were opposed to his accepting it.

Soon Parliament again raised objections to the form of government, and a dissolution was again the result. Cromwell was deeply offended by the opposition with which he met: he declared that he had not himself sought the place of Protector, and that he thought those who had offered it to him should support him in it.

“I would have been glad to have lived under my woodside, to have kept a flock of sheep,” he said, “rather than undertake such a government as this. I do dissolve this parliament, and let God be judge between you and me.”

Seven months after this speech the great Protector was dead. The toil he had endured so bravely for sixteen years, the worries he had suffered during his few years of rule, had worn out his hardy frame.

He had watched by the bed of his favorite daughter as she lay in terrible pain, and fever seized upon him when he was heartbroken at her death, and weak from want of sleep. He struggled hard against the disease, and attended to the business of the State; but it became evident that he would not recover.

Four days before his death a terrible storm raged over the country, stripping roofs from houses, tearing up trees by the roots, and scattering the seas with wrecks. Mocking Cavaliers said it was the Prince of Darkness come to fetch away the soul of the regicide.

While the winds swept around the palace of Whitehall, Cromwell was breathing his last prayer for his country. On the afternoon of September 3, his great day, the day of his triumphs at Dunbar and Worcester, the Lord Protector died.



Light Horseman, time of
Oliver Cromwell

GENERAL MONK

The Restoration

George Monk was born on December 6, 1608, in North Devon, the native county of so many of the bold soldiers and sailors whose names are famous in English history.

He was a strong, handsome, high-spirited boy. When he was seventeen years old, he got into trouble by thrashing a county official who had insulted his father; and, to escape arrest, he was hurried on board one of the ships of the fleet then about to set sail for Spain. The expedition, arranged by Charles I's minister, the Duke of Buckingham, failed in its attack on Cadiz; this was Monk's first experience of war.

Adopting the profession of soldier, Monk served for a time in the Dutch army; then, after commanding a regiment of foot in Ireland, he took the side of King Charles at the outbreak of the Civil War. He was known as a brave soldier and able officer; blunt in his manners, but true as steel. "Honest George" his regiment called him.

In the very first battle in which he was engaged, the king's army was defeated and Monk was taken prisoner. For three years he lay in the Tower of London; and then, the king having been decisively

beaten by the New Model army, Monk accepted a commission in the army of the Parliament.

He became one of Cromwell's lieutenant-generals in the campaign in Scotland, and fought at Dunbar. Then he took part in the naval war with the Dutch, though he was

so ignorant of nautical matters that he became a laughing-stock among the sailors.

When peace was concluded, Monk was placed at the head of the army in Scotland, and became in fact governor of that country, ruling on the principle — “assist the weak inhabitants, and weaken the mighty”. He took no part in the quarrel between the Army and the Parliament; indeed, he scarcely understood what the troubles were about. It was enough for him to do his duty without arguing; his rule was, strictly to obey those who paid him for his services.

When Oliver Cromwell died, his son Richard was named Protector. Utterly unlike his father, he was a weak and indolent man. The army, which had been so proud of Oliver, and had been the mainstay



George Monk
(afterwards Duke of Albemarle)

of his government, knew nothing of the new ruler; and when Richard was proclaimed Protector at Edinburgh, Monk's soldiers grumbled at having to support one who was unknown to them. A great cheer burst out when one of the troopers exclaimed: "Old George for my money; he's fitter for a Protector than Dick Cromwell!"

Monk loyally supported Richard, and assisted him with good advice; but, after ten months of confusion, due to renewed quarrels between Army and Parliament, the luckless Protector resigned office and retired to the Continent.

All was now confusion in the government; the Army, under General Lambert, demanded the submission of the Parliament, and the Parliament insisted on controlling the army. Monk, watching affairs quietly from his post in Scotland, saw that the country was tired of military rule, and promised to support the demand of the Parliament — by force if quiet measures were of no avail.

Lambert at length, following Oliver's example, marched a troop of soldiers to the House of Commons and expelled the members. Monk at once crossed the Border with his army. Since the soldiers were paid by Parliament, he said, their duty was to defend it.

It was on the first day of January, 1660, in the midst of a bitter winter, that Monk's famous march to London began. As he passed through the country,

people turned out to stare at him; church bells rang; everybody was tired of wrangling and confusion, everybody hoped that England would soon have a king again.

Monk himself said nothing about his intentions; he only declared that he was bent on securing the welfare of his country. Soon after his arrival in London, he persuaded the Long Parliament, which had reassembled after Richard's retirement, to dissolve itself by its own vote, and a new parliament was elected, Royalists being permitted to vote but not to hold seats.

As soon as the members met, letters were read from Prince Charles, written at Breda in Holland, and containing copies of the famous Declaration of Breda. In this document Charles promised, if he were restored, to govern with the assistance of Parliament, to pardon those who had rebelled against his father, and to allow liberty in religious matters.

This declaration was dispatched by the advice of Monk, who had sent his cousin to visit Charles in Holland. When the letters were read, a member of the Commons immediately moved that the proper government of England was by King, Lords, and Commons. The motion was passed with delight, and the Great Rebellion was at an end.

On May 25, 1660, Monk was summoned from Canterbury, where he was then lodging on his way

to Dover, by a messenger announcing that the fleet which was bringing home the king was in sight. He hurried off, accompanied by swarms of noblemen and gentlemen, eager to pay court to their sovereign.

As Charles stepped from his boat upon the beach at Dover, Monk fell on his knee and kissed the king's hand. Charles raised him, and embracing him called him his father; and then, amid the shouts of the people and the roar of guns, the great general entered the royal carriage with the king.

Monk's Closing Years

England now had a king again, and Monk for the remaining ten years of his life loyally served King Charles II. Charles was grateful to the man who had given him his kingdom; he made him a Knight of the Garter, appointed him Master of the Horse, and raised him to the peerage with the title of Duke of Albemarle.

Monk showed little liking for the gay, idle, and vicious crowd of courtiers who surrounded the king. He was a plain, blunt soldier, rough of speech and homely in manner. His wife was the simple and rather sharp-tongued widow of a perfumer, and the fine courtiers laughed at the old duke, whose vulgar wife so often scolded him.

But they could not but respect him too. When the terrible Plague broke out in London, and king

and courtiers fled for their lives, Monk remained, fearless as ever, in the pestilent city, and managed the whole affairs of the nation.

At the first appearance of the Plague, the nobles and gentry fled into the country, and their example was followed by vast numbers of the trading classes.



St. Paul's Cathedral before the Fire of 1666

The skill of doctors seemed powerless to check the dreadful disease. It was assisted by the hot and sultry air, and by the filthy condition of the city.

As the disease spread, orders were given that the door of every house attacked should be marked with a red cross, and have the words "Lord have mercy on us!" painted above it. No one was then allowed either to enter or to leave the house for a month.

All business ceased; grass grew in the streets, whose silence was broken only by the wails of plague-stricken people or the wild shouts of drunken

ruffians. At night, a cart went the round of the streets, accompanied by a man who rang a bell, and called on the people to bring out their dead.

It was four months before the Plague showed any signs of abatement, and not until the winter did people venture back into the city. More than a hundred thousand persons had perished, and for more than a year longer the disease lingered in various parts.

London had not recovered from the ravages of the Plague, when another calamity fell upon it. The Plague had destroyed human life; the Fire now destroyed property.

About two o'clock on Sunday morning, September 2, 1666, a fire broke out in a bakehouse in Pudding Lane, in a crowded part of the city near the Thames. The strong wind that was blowing carried the flames to the surrounding houses, which were built of wood; and the fire quickly spread to the neighboring warehouses, which contained stores only too well fitted to feed the flames.

People were so amazed at the sudden outburst of the fire, that they failed to do what might have been done to save other houses. As a writer says, "There was nothing heard or seen but crying out and lamentation, running about like distracted creatures, without at all attempting to save even their goods".

Next day the fire was still raging, and many

streets of houses were reduced to ashes. St. Paul's Cathedral took fire; "the stones of Paul's flew like granados, the melting lead running down the streets in a stream. The very pavements glowed with fiery redness, so that no horse nor man was able to tread on them,"

At length people began to come to their senses. The king ordered a number of houses to be blown up, in order to make a wide gap over which the flames would not leap. Monk was sent for and soon restored order. The wind fell, and the fire, after raging for three days and nights, gradually burned itself out.

Terrible as the Plague and the Fire were in their effects, they were in some ways a blessing. The Plague taught the people the value of cleanliness. The Fire burned out the remnant of the Plague, and destroyed parts of the city that were really dens of fever.

In the fight against plague and fire it was Monk who directed affairs. When a new war with the Dutch broke out, it was still Monk who was chosen to go against them with an English fleet. Meeting the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, numbering nearly twice as many ships as his own, he attacked it, contrary to the advice of his officers. He called them cowards, and said that he "hated a coward as ill as a toad".

But the Dutch were no common enemy, and the brave general was beaten. Another furious battle was fought, in which neither side gained a victory, though both fleets suffered great damage. Soon after, the English landed on the Dutch coast, sacked a town, and burned a large fleet of merchant vessels. In revenge, a Dutch fleet appeared at the mouth of the Thames, seized Sheerness, and burned some vessels at Chatham.

Monk, who had been recalled to London to restore order after the Great Fire, hurried off to the coast to secure the dockyards and save the fleet. In this he succeeded, though he could not prevent some of the finest of English ships from falling into the hands of the Dutch. Then he provided defensive works for the protection of the coast, and received the special thanks of Parliament, which was enraged at the disgrace that had befallen the country, but knew that Monk had done what he could to prevent it.

The old general's work was done. He was in bad health when he went to Chatham, and his labors there were too much for his strength. He lingered on for many months in increasing pain and weakness; and on January 2, 1670, he died, watched over to the last by a number of his faithful Coldstream Guards.

He was buried with great pomp in Westminster



“The Royal Charles,” an English Battleship of the Period, which was captured by the Dutch. (From engravings in the Amsterdam Museum)

Abbey, and the king himself rode in the splendid procession which followed his body through the crowded streets.

Monk was, in a sense, the founder of the British army. Up to Cromwell's time there had been no standing army — that is to say, no soldiers who were constantly paid by the State for their services. When war broke out, men were called from their farms and their workshops to fight, and returned to their trades when the fighting was done.

Cromwell's army was the first standing army in England; but it was also a political and religious body, which did not think itself bound always to obey Parliament, and was too much inclined to claim supreme power in the kingdom. It was Monk who founded and kept on foot a few famous regiments such as the Coldstream Guards, separated the army from all political questions, and taught soldiers and their commanders alike the lesson contained in Tennyson's lines —

Theirs not to make reply,
Theirs not to reason why,
Theirs but to do and die.

THE GREAT CARDINAL

The Huguenots

When Henry IV of France died in 1610 by the dagger of the assassin, he left behind him a peaceful and prosperous country. During his short reign the religious feuds, which had cost oceans of blood, had been healed. The power of the throne had been firmly established, and law and order restored throughout the land.

But on the accession of his son, Louis XIII, who was a child of nine years, the country fell back once more into its old lawlessness and civil strife. The government was entrusted to the queen mother, a weak and ignorant Italian princess, who was controlled by worthless favorites.

The great nobles once again began to play the part of feudal lords. They dispensed justice, made laws, and waged private wars as if they were petty sovereigns. From time to time they rose in revolt against the throne itself, but were always bought off by bribes, pensions, or titles from the queen mother. In this way she squandered the millions that had been laid up in the royal treasury by Henry IV and his able minister, Sully.

Affairs were in this disordered state when the great Cardinal Richelieu took over the helm of state. For nearly twenty years he ruled France as a



Cardinal Richelieu

despot. He ruled, it is true, in the name of his master the king, but it was his own wishes and his own policy that prevailed in everything. The king did not like him, but then he liked no one. He recognized, however, that the Cardinal was the ablest man in the country. He saw that if he was imperious and masterful,

it was with the noble ambition of giving his country a foremost place in the councils of Europe. And so, though he disliked and feared his great minister, who at times treated him like a schoolboy, he remained loyal to him to the end.

In a letter to the king, Richelieu has placed on record a statement of the aims he had in view when he took up office. "When your Majesty made me your minister I promised to use all my power and industry to ruin the Huguenot party, to lower the pride of the nobility, and to restore the country's name among the nations." How successful he was in each of these objects we shall now see.

Richelieu resolved to break the power of the Huguenots, not because he was a bigoted Catholic,

but because he considered that their existence as a semi-independent body was a menace to the State. "The Huguenots", he said, "were Protestants first and Frenchmen afterwards."

By the terms of the Edict of Nantes, in addition to freedom of worship, four fortified cities had been given to the Huguenots which they were to garrison with Protestant troops. During the minority of the king these towns had been the centers of conspiracy or revolt against the Government. Every rebellious noble sought their aid, which they were always ready enough to give for a price.

Richelieu ordered them to dismantle their fortifications and to become, like the other French towns, subject to the king's authority. The Huguenots haughtily refused, and Richelieu himself advanced with a great army against the strongest of their towns, La Rochelle.

This town was impregnable on the land side, being surrounded by ramparts of immense thickness and protected from attack by impassable marshes. Richelieu quickly made up his mind that it was impossible to take the city by storm. So he resolved to blockade the town and to starve the citizens into surrender.

On the land side he completely surrounded the place with triple lines of trenches, so that it was impossible to break through. But the blockade was hopeless so long as ships could sail in and out of the

harbor, and Richelieu knew well that Charles I, King of England, was already fitting out a fleet to carry provisions and supplies to the besieged city.

The daring plan which Richelieu formed in order to make the blockade effective all round, shows that he was a great general as well as a great statesman. Right across the harbor mouth, about a mile in width, he resolved to erect a mole or dyke to prevent ships reaching the city with supplies. This was a work of enormous difficulty. The sea was stormy at all seasons in this quarter, but it was now the dead of winter, and the task seemed impossible.

But Richelieu was not to be baffled. He took good care to treat his army well. The men were well paid, well clothed, and well fed, a striking contrast to what prevailed in other armies of the period. For this toilsome duty he offered them double pay and special privileges. The work proceeded apace. A furious storm carried away part of the dyke, but it was quickly repaired, and in five months the task was completed.

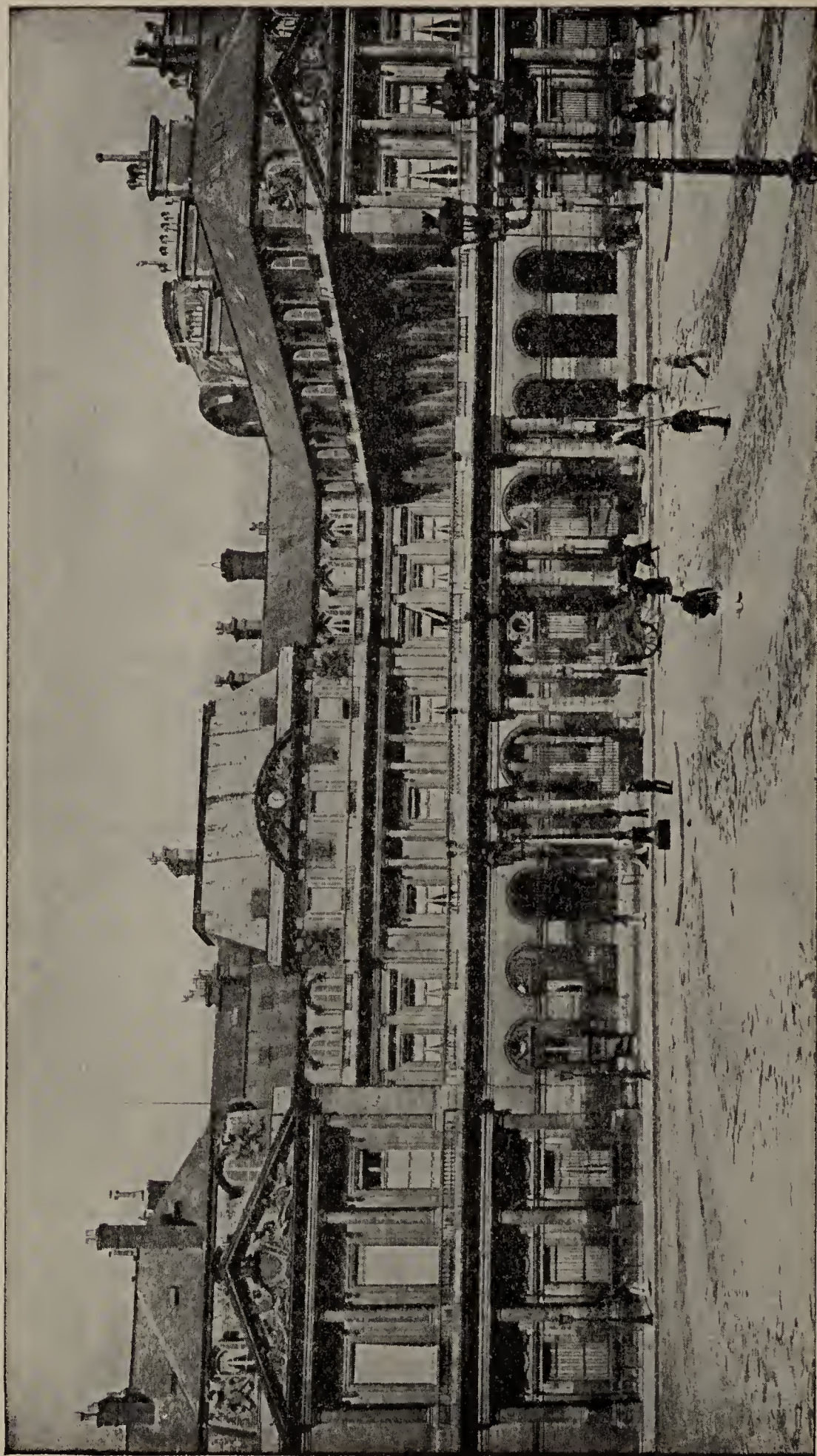
Rochelle now began to suffer from famine. The rich people in the town wished to surrender, but the sailors, who formed a large majority of the inhabitants, deposed the mayor of the city, and elected in his stead a hardy and resolute sea captain. At the first meeting of the council he placed his dagger on the table, saying: "This is for the first man who talks of surrender".

An English fleet of 140 vessels, with 6000 soldiers on board, now appeared on the scene, and made several gallant attempts to break through the mole, but it had to sail away baffled. The city was by this time reduced to the last extremity of famine. The people had nothing to eat but roots and herbs, shellfish and boiled skins. The poor died off by thousands, and hundreds lay unburied in the houses and streets. At last even the dauntless mayor recognized that further resistance was hopeless, and the gates of the city were opened to the enemy.

Six days after the surrender, the great sea dyke was almost completely destroyed by a fierce storm. Richelieu boasted that the very elements were fighting on his side, for if the storm had come earlier all his plans would have miscarried.

By his treatment of the captive Huguenots, the great Cardinal showed that he was far removed from the intolerant and bigoted ideas of the age. He took vengeance on none, restored them all to liberty, granted them complete freedom of worship and equality of civil rights, rights which Roman Catholics in England did not enjoy till over two centuries later.

In the next generation the Huguenots showed their gratitude by becoming the most loyal subjects of the Crown, and the most industrious and enterprising citizens in the country.



THE PALAIS-ROYAL, PARIS

Erected by Cardinal Richelieu in 1619-36, and originally named the Palais-Cardinal. It is at present occupied by the Council of State

The Old Nobility

Richelieu, having thus succeeded in the first of the objects he had set before him, now turned his attention to the nobility. The record of the plots formed by this class against him would fill a volume, but the great Cardinal was always beforehand in his knowledge of them. In every district he had in his pay a great army of spies drawn from every class. A voice could not be raised against him in the remotest corners, but the echo of it was in a few days heard in the Cardinal's palace in Paris.

Upon all who dared to oppose his plans he pounced with an eagle's swoop. He never missed his prey, and in striking he struck always at "the tallest heads". Four dukes, four counts, four marshals, as well as a host of the lesser nobility, he sent to the scaffold or the block. Marshal St. Gérard, when he lay dying, said, half in jest, half in bitter irony: "They will not recognize me in the next world, for it is so long since a Marshal of France has gone there with a head upon his shoulders".

One of the victims of his pitiless policy was the Duke of Montmorency. Among the proud nobility Montmorency stood easily first. In his veins flowed royal blood, and his family had been illustrious throughout seven centuries of French history. Per-

sonally he was the noblest, richest, and handsomest man in France. But he took part in a plot against the Cardinal, and was cast into prison like others. Princes, nobles, and people, all begged for his life. The clergy offered prayers for his pardon in the churches, but the relentless Cardinal held on his way unmoved, and sent him to the block like the meanest criminal. This act struck terror among the great lords, and Richelieu had rest from their plotting for a time.

True to his policy of breaking their power, he ordered them to dismantle all their fortified castles and to dismiss their armed followers. He also sent officers throughout the country to see that his orders were carried out.

In place of the old feudal lords who acted as governors in each province, he created a body of officials called *Intendants*. Their duty was to preserve order, to administer justice, to collect taxes, and to raise military forces for the king. They had indeed all the power of the old nobility, but they were creatures of the king and his ministers, and could be dismissed at will. This act may be said to have destroyed the last relics of the feudal system, and never again do we find the French lords rising in revolt against their sovereign. Thus Richelieu accomplished the second object of his ambition.

Foreign Affairs

Having secured the unquestioned authority of the king at home, the great Cardinal felt free to turn his attention to foreign affairs. Though he was an earnest Catholic, a bishop, a cardinal, and a prince of the Church, his whole foreign policy was directed against Catholic kingdoms and states and in favor of Protestant ones. This was not from any sympathy with their faith, but from political motives.

He saw with growing concern the rising power of the Emperor, who was also ruler of Austria. He feared that he would soon become so great that he would swallow up the kingdom of France. He feared this the more because the ancient enmity between France and Spain had again broken out, and Spain and Austria worked hand in hand. He therefore resolved to strike, and strike hard, before they became too powerful. We have already seen how he sent money secretly to Gustavus Adolphus to carry on the war against the Emperor.

On the death of that great leader, Richelieu felt he was able to enter openly on the struggle. This he did, and on many a field his generals humbled the pride of both Spain and Austria. Before he died Richelieu had added large tracts of country to the kingdom, and had "extended its bounds to that of ancient Gaul". In the course of a few years

he quite displaced Spain from its position as the first nation in Europe, and advanced his own nation to a position of power and glory never before attained.

Worn out with the cares of State, the great Cardinal, having accomplished the threefold objects of



The Tomb of Richelieu, in the Church of the Sorbonne, Paris

his ambition, passed away in 1643 at the age of fifty-seven. He was the greatest statesman of the age, and his fame has grown brighter with the passing of the centuries. He has often been compared to Wolsey, but the great English cardinal never had the enormous power that Richelieu wielded.

His personality, as statesman, general, and prince

of the Church, has seized upon the imagination of all nations. His portrait is better known than that of most of the kings of France. In all the representations of him he has “ a lean and hungry look ”, the glance of a hawk rather than of an eagle. But power is written on every line of it, and so also is stern and pitiless resolve.

THE REVOLUTION

James II

One of the greatest events in English history is that known as the Revolution of 1688. The word “revolution” means “a turning round”, and when a country is said to go through a revolution, the meaning is that a complete change has been made in the government of that country. In the year 1688 such a change took place in England.

Revolutions have been chiefly caused by the misrule of kings. Oppression has made a nation more and more discontented and angry, until at last it has risen in a burst of fury and swept its oppressors away.

England went through a kind of revolution in the time of Charles I, when the Parliament waged war against the king, defeated and put him to death, and established the Commonwealth. But these events are not known in history as the Revolution, because the change of government lasted only a few years, and with the return of Charles II monarchy, the old form of government, was restored.

We must now see how it came about that, forty years after the death of Charles I, another and a greater revolution took place. This revolution did not cause the death of a king, and was accomplished without bloodshed; it did not do away with the

office of king, but, while retaining the royal title, it secured that no king of England should ever again have the power to oppress the people.

King Charles II reigned for twenty-five years, during which time the prosperity of the country greatly increased. The king was a gay, witty, and careless man, with fine abilities, but selfish and pleasure-loving.

He was careful, however, not to do anything to make himself generally disliked; he was determined, as he said, not to go on his travels again, and therefore took care to keep on good terms with his subjects.

When Charles died, leaving no lawful children, his brother, James, Duke of York, became King James II. The new king was not so clever as his brother, but he was more earnest and diligent. Unhappily for himself, he held the same belief which had ruined his father Charles I, namely, that the king was absolutely above the law, and could do just as he pleased.

James thought that everybody who agreed with him was right, and everybody who disagreed was wrong. He had none of his brother's skill in managing men, and he was unable to learn the lesson which the sad fate of his father ought to have taught him.

The Dispensing Power

King James soon began a course of conduct which was in the end to cost him his crown. In the previous reign laws, called the Corporation and Test Acts, had been passed, the object of which was to prevent anyone from holding public office who was not a member of the Church of England. Thus Roman Catholics and Dissenters alike were not allowed to be members of Parliament, magistrates, or officers in the army, or to hold many other important public positions.

Such laws could not be passed in our days, when people are not made to suffer for their religion. But in those days it was considered impossible, for the sake of peace and order in the country, to allow Catholics to hold public offices.

James, being a Catholic, thought that the Catholics were unjustly dealt with by this law; besides, he wished to make his religion the religion of the whole country. He therefore appointed Catholics to certain offices; and when it was complained that this was against the law, he said that he, as king, had the right to excuse or "dispense" persons from obedience to the law.

Now James had no such right, but he was unwise enough to try to prove that he had. When the judges told him that he was in the wrong, he dismissed them from their offices, and appointed in

their places men who, he knew, would do whatever he wished.

Next, James allowed clergymen of the Church of England to conduct service according to Roman Catholic forms. He also placed Catholics in various offices in the University of Oxford, and punished clergymen who preached against what they held to be the errors of the Church of Rome.



James II (after Kneller)

When the people saw the Roman Catholic worship restored, and heard of these doings of the king, they began to show their discontent. Riots broke out in various parts of the country, and to overawe the people James collected a great army on Hounslow Heath, near London.

Blind to all signs of danger, the king now issued a Declaration of Indulgence, in which he gave permission to Roman Catholics and Dissenters to worship as they pleased, and set aside all laws against them.

He then interfered again with the universities. At Cambridge the vice-chancellor was deprived of his office for refusing to grant a degree to a Catholic monk. At Oxford James ordered the Fellows of

Magdalen College to elect a Roman Catholic as their president. When they refused, because the rule of the college was against such an appointment, they were turned out. These were acts of tyranny for which the king had no defense whatever.

Trial of the Seven Bishops

The next proceeding of the foolhardy king was to issue a second Declaration of Indulgence, which he ordered to be read in all the churches throughout the country. Most of the clergy objected to reading it because it was illegal. Seven bishops, therefore, including the Archbishop of Canterbury, drew up and presented a petition to the king, in which they assured him of their loyalty, but declared that they could not advise the reading of an illegal document.

When the Sunday came on which the Declaration was to be read, hardly a clergyman obeyed the king's order. In the churches where it was obeyed, the people rose in a body and streamed out, leaving the ministers to themselves.

James was enraged at the conduct of the bishops and clergy. He summoned the seven bishops before him, and demanded that they should comply with his wishes. On their refusal, he sent them to the Tower; and as the barge conveying them passed

down the river, hundreds of voices from the banks shouted “ God bless your lordships! ”

The bishops were charged with having published a “ false, malicious, and seditious libel ”, and were put on their trial in Westminster Hall on June 29, 1688.

Among the jury was one Michael Arnold, the king’s brewer, who was in great distress at his position. “ Whatever I do, I am sure to be half ruined,” he said. “ If I say not guilty, I shall brew no more for the king, and if I say guilty, I shall brew no more for anybody else.”

The trial lasted for several hours, and it was night before the jury retired to consider their verdict. They remained locked up all night, and hours

were spent in argument. At length, towards morning, all were in favor of the bishops but Arnold the brewer, who refused to agree to a verdict of not guilty.

He would listen to no argument, and by and by one of the jury, grow-



Medal struck in Honor of the Petitioning Bishops (obverse)

ing impatient, said: "Look at me. I am the largest and strongest of the twelve; and before I find such a petition as this a libel, here I will stay till I am no bigger than a tobacco pipe."

At six o'clock in the morning the brewer gave way, and the twelve jurymen, returning into court, gave a unanimous verdict of *Not Guilty*. Instantly the thousands of people who crowded the hall shouted for joy; the cry was taken up by thousands outside; guns were fired; flags were run up the masts of ships on the Thames; and horsemen galloped off to carry the joyful news into the country.

James was at the camp on Hounslow Heath when the news reached him. Angry at the result of the trial, he was setting out for London, when he was startled by boisterous cheers behind him. Asking what they meant, he got the answer: "Nothing; the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted". "Do you call that nothing?" said James; "so much the worse for them."



Medal struck in Honor of the Petitioning Bishops (reverse)

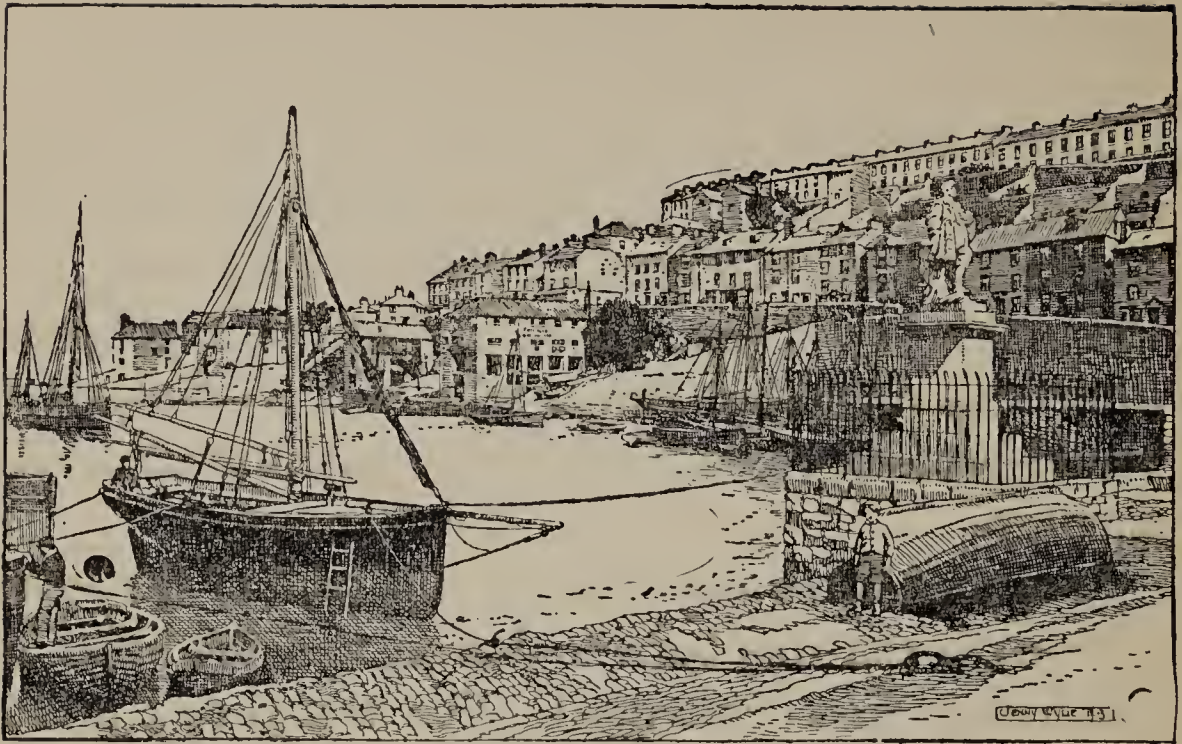
William of Orange

James had now been king for three years, and had disgusted the nation by his contempt for law and justice. But he had reached his fifty-sixth year, and the people hoped that when his death took place his grown-up daughter Mary, who was a Protestant, would become queen, and bring contentment to the country.

Less than three weeks before the trial of the seven bishops, a son was born to James, and the hopes of the nation were destroyed. For the young prince would be brought up in his father's religion, and the people could only look forward to another Catholic king, who, they thought, would respect the law no more than James had done. This they were determined not to endure.

On the very day of the acquittal of the seven bishops, a letter was sent to Holland, asking the ruler of that Protestant country to come and deliver England from the tyrant. The ruler of Holland was William of Orange, who was also the husband of James's daughter Mary, the princess whom all Englishmen had hoped for as their queen.

This prince was a descendant of William the Silent, who had fought so long and so bravely against the Spaniards, and in the end founded the Dutch Republic. William of Orange was himself a soldier who had led armies against the foes of



Brixham Quay

The statue of William III (on the right) has been erected on the spot on which he is said to have first placed foot in England

his country. The enemy this time was no longer the Spaniards, but the French. Louis XIV led a great army into Holland and captured many towns; but William of Orange drove them out by cutting the dykes as his great ancestor had done, and letting the waters of the sea in upon them.

William accepted the invitation. He was delayed for some months, but on November 5, 1688, he landed in Devonshire, and began his march to London. Nobles and gentlemen flocked to his banner, and James, when he set out with his troops to meet William, was deserted by many of his officers and courtiers.

Returning to London, the poor king found that even his second daughter, the Princess Anne, had left him and gone to join William. "God help me!" he exclaimed; "my own children have forsaken me."

James now sent the queen and the baby prince to France, and fearing for his life he tried to follow them on the next day. As he crossed the Thames he dropped the Great Seal into the water, hoping that the business of the country could not be carried on without that mark of royal authority.

Driving rapidly eastward, James arrived at Sheerness, where he embarked on board a small boat. His appearance excited the curiosity of some rough fishermen, who boarded the boat, stripped him of his money and watch, and carried him on shore, where he was recognized. "Let me go," he cried; "get me a boat. The Prince of Orange is hunting for my life. If you do not let me fly now, it will be too late."

He was rescued from the crowd and brought back to London. But William did not want him there. While he remained in England he was king. He was therefore allowed to retire to Rochester, whence he escaped late one night and took ship for France.

Parliament then declared that by leaving the country James had "abdicated" or given up the government, and left the throne vacant; and two months later the crown of England was offered to

and accepted by William and Mary. The Revolution was over; it put an end to the claim of the sovereign to be above the law, and henceforward every English sovereign would have to rule by the will of Parliament.

The image shows two handwritten signatures in cursive script. The first signature, on the left, is 'William' followed by a large, stylized 'R' that loops around. The second signature, on the right, is 'Mary' followed by a large, stylized 'R' that loops around. The ink is dark and the handwriting is fluid and characteristic of the 17th century.

Signatures of William and Mary

Maps





CENTRAL EUROPE

at the time of the

Thirty Years War

English Miles

Boundary of the Empire..

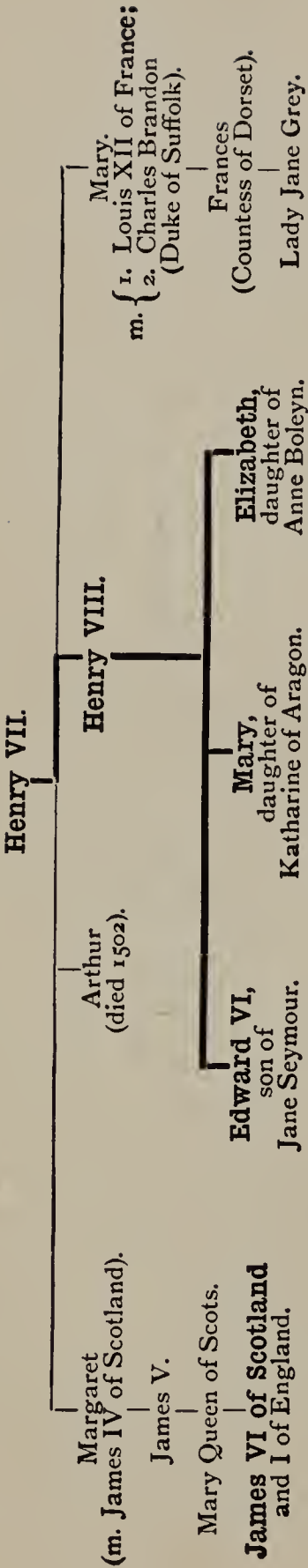
Austrian possessions.



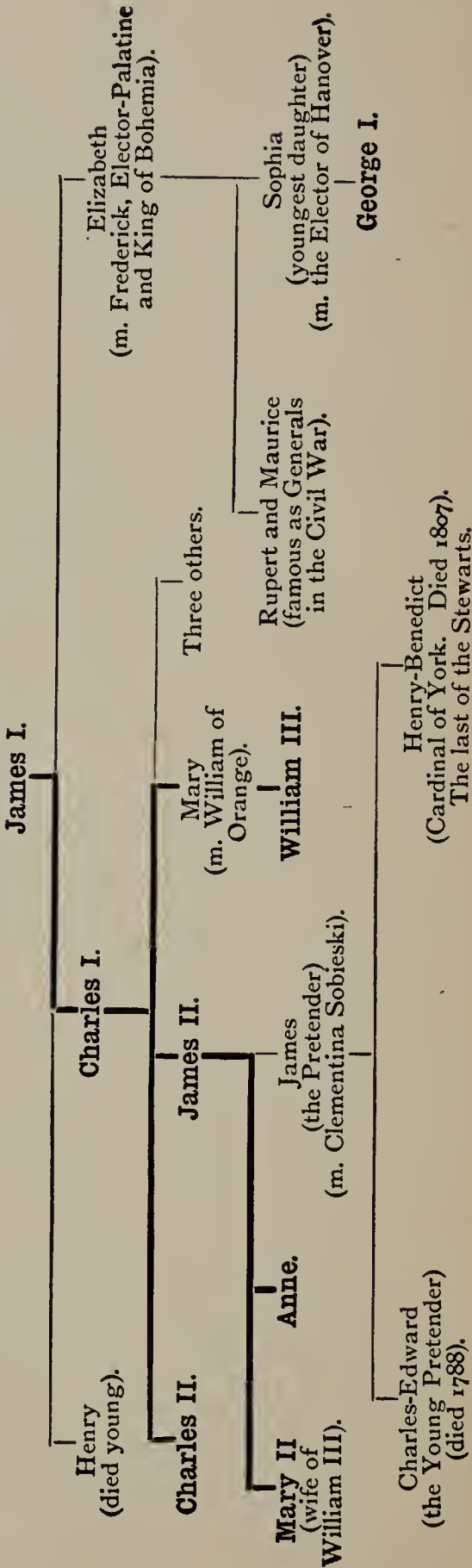
APPENDIX II

Tables

HOUSE OF TUDOR



HOUSE OF STEWART




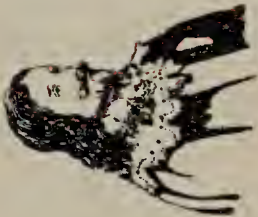





PICTORIAL TIME CHARTS

CHART




- I. 1600 TO 1700.
- II. 1700 TO 1800.
- III. 1800 TO 1900.




BRITAIN AND HER NEIGHBOURS, 1600-1700

1600	 <p>1610. MURDER OF HENRY IV,</p> <p><i>Henry IV of France</i></p>	<p>UNION OF CROWNS.— JAMES I, 1603-25.</p>  <p><i>Shakespeare</i> SHAKESPEARE'S LATER PLAYS. <i>Dies</i> 1616.</p>	EAST INDIA COMPANY FOUNDED, 1600. 1606. COLONISTS IN VIRGINIA.	1600
1620	<p>THIRTY YEARS' WAR, 1618-48.</p> <p>RICHELIEU SUPREME IN FRANCE, 1624-42.</p>  <p><i>Richelieu</i></p>	<p>CHARLES I, 1625-49.</p>  <p><i>Charles I</i></p>	1616. RALEIGH EXPLORES ORINOCO. PILGRIM FATHERS, 1620.	1620
1640	<p>LOUIS XIV, 1643-1715.</p> <p>1648. PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.</p>	<p>STRAFFORD AND LAUD IN POWER.</p> <p>CIVIL WAR, 1642-49.</p> <p>CHARLES I EXECUTED, 1649. COMMONWEALTH, 1649-60.</p>	CAPE TOWN FOUNDED BY DUTCH.	1640




1660	<p>CROMWELL MAKES WAR ON HOLLAND.</p>	<p>CROMWELL, LORD PROTECTOR, 1653-8.</p>  <p><i>Cromwell</i></p> <p>RESTORATION. CHARLES II, 1660-85.</p> <p>SECOND DUTCH WAR, 1665. PLAGUE AND FIRE IN LONDON.</p> <p>JOHN MILTON, <i>d.</i> 1674.</p>	<p>1655. JAMAICA ANNEXED.</p> <p>1660</p> <p>1662. BOMBAY PRESENTED TO CHARLES II.</p> <p>1664. NEW YORK CAPTURED BY ENGLISH.</p>
1680	<p>LOUIS XIV BECOMES HIS OWN MINISTER.</p>  <p><i>William of Orange</i></p>  <p><i>Louis XIV</i></p> <p>WILLIAM AND LOUIS XIV AT WAR, 1672-8.</p>	<p>JAMES II, 1685-8.</p> <p>REVOLUTION OF 1688.</p> <p>WILLIAM AND MARY, 1688-1702. BATTLE OF THE BOYNE, 1690.</p>	<p>1680</p>
1700	<p>1685. EDICT OF NANTES REVOKED BY LOUIS XIV.</p> <p>GRAND ALLIANCE AGAINST LOUIS, 1689-97.</p> <p>QUESTION OF SPANISH SUCCESSION.</p>	<p>SCOTCH EXPEDITION TO DARIEN.</p>	<p>1700</p>







BRITAIN AND HER NEIGHBOURS, 1700-1800

1700	<p>WAR OF SPANISH SUCCESSION, 1701-13.</p>  <p><i>Marlbrough</i></p> <p>MARLBOROUGH'S VICTORIES.</p> <p>PETER THE GREAT <i>defeats Charles XII of Sweden.</i></p>	<p>QUEEN ANNE, 1702-14.</p> <p>UNION OF PARLIAMENTS, 1707.</p> <p>TREATY OF UTRECHT, 1713.</p> <p>GEORGE I, 1714-27.</p> <p>JACOBITE REBELLION, 1715.</p>	<p>1701. PRESIDENCY OF CALCUTTA FOUNDED.</p> <p>MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA BEGINS TO BREAK UP.</p>	1700
1720	<p>—RISE OF RUSSIA.</p> <p>PETER THE GREAT DIES AT ST. PETERSBURG, 1725.</p>  <p><i>Peter the Great</i></p>	<p>SOUTH SEA BUBBLE, 1720</p> <p>SIR ROBERT WALPOLE, <i>Prime Minister, 1720-40.</i></p>  <p><i>Walpole</i></p>	<p>1732. GEORGIA SETTLED.</p>	1720
1740	<p>WAR OF AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, 1741-8.</p> <p>FREDERICK THE GREAT SEIZES SILESIA, 1742.</p>	<p>PRINCE CHARLIE'S RISING, 1745.</p>	<p>FRENCH AND BRITISH RIVALRY IN INDIA.</p>	1740

1760	<p>SEVEN YEARS' WAR, 1756-63.</p> <p>—RISE OF PRUSSIA.</p>	<p>ELDER PITT IN POWER, 1757.</p> <p>—GEORGE III, 1760-1820.</p>	<p>CLIVE'S DEFENCE OF ARCOT, 1751.</p> <p>1757. CLIVE'S VICTORY AT PLASSEY.</p> <p>1759. WOLFE'S CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.</p> <p>1760</p>
1780	<p>  <i>Frederick the Great (d. 1786)</i> </p>	<p>JOHN WESLEY'S FIELD PREACHING, 1740-90.</p> <p>HOWARD'S PRISON REFORMS, 1774.</p> <p>CROMPTON'S "MULE", ETC.</p>	<p>1768. COOK'S FIRST VOYAGE TO AUSTRALIA.</p> <p>1773. WARREN HASTINGS, <i>Governor-General of India.</i></p> <p>1776. AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.</p> <p>  <i>Washington</i> </p> <p>1780</p>
1800	<p>FRENCH REVOLUTION, 1789.</p> <p>EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI, 1793.</p> <p>NAPOLÉON FIRST CONSUL, 1799.</p>	<p>1784.</p> <p>YOUNGER PITT IN POWER,</p> <p>  <i>Pitt</i> </p> <p>WAR WITH FRANCE.</p> <p>BATTLE OF THE NILE, 1798 (NELSON).</p>	<p>1787. FIRST AUSTRALIAN SETTLERS.</p> <p>WELLESLEY IN INDIA.</p> <p>1800</p>

BRITAIN AND HER NEIGHBOURS, 1800-1900

1800	<p>NAPOLEON, EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH, 1804.</p>  <p>TRAFALGAR, 1805. <i>Nelson's Victory and Death.</i></p> <p>NAPOLEON</p> <p>PENINSULAR WAR, 1808-14. <i>Wellington's Victories.</i></p> <p>WATERLOO, 1815. <i>Napoleon's final defeat.</i></p>	<p>IRISH PARLIAMENT UNITED WITH BRITISH, 1800.</p> <p>DEATH OF PITT, 1806.</p> <p>SLAVE TRADE FORBIDDEN, 1807.</p>	<p>WAR WITH U.S.A., 1812.</p> <p>CAPE COLONY CEDED TO BRITAIN, 1814.</p>	1800
1820	<p>SECOND FRENCH REVOLUTION, 1830. LOUIS PHILIPPE, KING.</p>	<p>FIRST RAILWAYS.</p> <p>FIRST REFORM BILL, 1832.</p>  <p><i>Victoria</i></p> <p>QUEEN VICTORIA, 1837-1901. PENNY POSTAGE.</p>	<p>EXPLORATION OF AUSTRALIA, 1813-62.</p>	1820
1840	<p>YEAR OF REVOLUTIONS, 1848. LOUIS NAPOLEON, PRESIDENT.</p>	 <p><i>Peel</i></p> <p>REPEAL OF CORN LAWS, 1846.</p>	<p>CANADA SELF-GOVERNING.</p>	1840

<div>1860</div> <div> <div>LOUIS NAPOLEON, EMPEROR.</div> <div>1854-6. CRIMEAN WAR.</div> </div> <div> <div>WAR OF ITALIAN UNITY, 1860.</div> <div>  <div>Garibaldi</div> </div> <div>FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR, 1870.</div> <div>  <div>Bismarck</div> </div> <div>GERMAN EMPIRE.</div> <div>THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC.</div> </div> <div> <div>1880</div> <div> <div>WILLIAM II, GERMAN EMPEROR, 1880.</div> <div>FALL OF BISMARCK.</div> </div> <div>  <div>Kaiser William II</div> </div> </div>	<div> <div>1854-6. CRIMEAN WAR.</div> <div>  <div>Disraeli</div> </div> <div>  <div>Gladstone</div> </div> <div>Two great Prime Ministers.</div> <div>SCHOOL BOARDS ESTABLISHED, 1870.</div> <div>EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT, 1880.</div> <div>THIRD REFORM ACT, 1885.</div> <div>COUNTY COUNCILS ESTABLISHED, 1888.</div> <div>1901-10. EDWARD VII.</div> </div>	<div>1860</div> <div> <div>LIVINGSTONE'S FIRST JOURNEY.</div> <div>1857. INDIAN MUTINY.</div> </div> <div> <div>1861-5. AMERICAN CIVIL WAR.</div> <div>  <div>Lincoln</div> </div> <div>1867. DOMINION OF CANADA ESTABLISHED.</div> <div>1877. VICTORIA, EMPRESS OF INDIA.</div> </div>	<div>1880</div> <div> <div>1882. BRITAIN IN EGYPT.</div> <div>1885. DEATH OF GORDON.</div> </div> <div> <div>1899-1902. SOUTH AFRICAN WAR.</div> <div>1900. COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.</div> </div>
<div>1860</div>	<div>1860</div>	<div>1860</div>	<div>1860</div>

NOTABLE DATES

- 1643-1715. LOUIS XIV.
1649-60. COMMONWEALTH IN ENGLAND.
1685. EDICT OF NANTES REVOKED BY LOUIS XIV.
1688. REVOLUTION. WILLIAM AND MARY.
1704. MARLBOROUGH'S VICTORY AT BLENHEIM.
1707. UNION OF PARLIAMENTS.
1709. PETER THE GREAT DEFEATS CHARLES XII OF SWEDEN.
RISE OF RUSSIA.
1745. PRINCE CHARLIE'S REBELLION.
1756-63. SEVEN YEARS' WAR. RISE OF PRUSSIA UNDER
FREDERICK THE GREAT.
1757. CLIVE'S VICTORY AT PLASSEY.
1759. WOLFE'S CAPTURE OF QUEBEC.
1776. AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.
1789. FRENCH REVOLUTION.
1800. IRISH PARLIAMENT UNITED WITH BRITISH.
1815. WATERLOO—NAPOLEON'S FINAL DEFEAT.
1832. FIRST REFORM BILL.
1837-1901. QUEEN VICTORIA.
1846. CORN LAWS REPEALED.
1848. YEAR OF REVOLUTIONS IN EUROPE.
1854-56. CRIMEAN WAR.
1857. INDIAN MUTINY.
1860. GARIBALDI AND ITALIAN UNITY.
1861-65. AMERICAN CIVIL WAR.
1867. DOMINION OF CANADA ESTABLISHED.
1870. SCHOOL BOARDS ESTABLISHED.
1870. FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR.
1882. BRITISH OCCUPATION OF EGYPT.
1899-1902. SOUTH AFRICAN WAR.
1901. COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.
1901-10. KING EDWARD VII.
1910. UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

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